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Rel S. Angelo
C.S. Angelo
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Lagudia
Scale of English Miles.
ISLAND
of
CORFU.
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A

HISTORICAL AND TOPOGRAPHICAL

ESSAY

UPON THE ISLANDS OF

CORFÙ, LEUCADIA, CEPHALONIA, ITHACA, AND ZANTE:

WITH

REMARKS UPON THE CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS OF

THE IONIAN GREEKS;

DESCRIPTIONS OF THE SCENERY AND REMAINS OF ANTIQUITY DISCOVERED THEREIN,

AND

REFLECTIONS UPON THE CYCLOPEAN RUINS.

38224

ILLUSTRATED BY MAPS AND SKETCHES.

BY WILLIAM GOODISSON, A. B.

Assistant-Surgeon in His Majesty's 75th Regiment.

AA

" Οἵη περ φύλλων γενεὴ, τοίηδε καί ἀνδρῶν
Φύλλα τὰ μὲν τ' ἄνεμος χαμαδὶς χεεῖ, αλλαδε θ' ὕλη
Τηλεθόωσα φυεῖ ἔαρος δ' ἐπιγίγνεται ὥρη
Ως ἀνδρῶν γενεὴ, ἡ μεν φύει, ἡ δ'απολήγει." Iliad, vi. v. 146.

" Like leaves on trees the race of man is found,
Now green in youth, now withering on the ground;
Another race the following spring supplies;
They fall successive and successive rise:
So generations in their course decay;
So flourish these when those are past away."—POPE.

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1822.

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Printed by B. Jaques, Chelsea.

TO

PHILIP CRAMPTON, Esq. M.D. F.R.S.

SURGEON IN ORDINARY TO THE KING,

AND

SURGEON-GENERAL TO HIS MAJESTY'S FORCES IN IRELAND,

&c. &c. &c.

THIS ESSAY

IS MOST RESPECTFULLY INSCRIBED,

AS A TOKEN OF ESTEEM, AND OF ADMIRATION

OF HIS EMINENT PROFESSIONAL AND LITERARY TALENTS,

AND,

AS A MEMORIAL OF FRIENDSHIP,

AND OF GRATITUDE,

BY

THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

MITFORD, speaking of Homer as a historian, observes, " the authority, however, of the great " poet as an historian, has, in modern times, been " variously estimated; among the ancients it was " less questioned. As it is of the highest import- " ance to the history of early ages, that it should " have its due weight, I will mention here some " of the principal circumstances of proof in its " favour: others will occur hereafter. In Homer's " age then, it should be remembered, poets were " the only historians; from which, though it does " not at all follow, that poets would always scru- " pulously adhere to truth, yet it necessarily fol- " lows, that veracity in historical relation, would " make a large share of a poet's merit in public " opinion: a circumstance which the common use

" of written records and prose histories instantly
" and totally altered. The probability, and the very
" remarkable consistency of Homer's historical anec-
" dotes, variously dispersed as they are among his
" poetical details and embellishments, form a second
" and powerful testimony. Indeed the connection,
" and the clearness of Grecian history, through the
" very early times of which Homer has treated,
" appear extraordinary, when compared with the
" darkness and uncertainty that begin in the instant
" of our losing his guidance, and continue through
" ages. In confirmation then of this presumptive
" evidence, we have very complete positive proof
" to the only point that could admit of it, his
" geography; which has wonderfully stood the most
" serupulous inquiries from those who were every
" way qualified to make them. From all these,
" with, perhaps, other considerations, followed,
" what we may add in the fourth place, the credit
" paid to Homer's history by the most judicious
" prose writers of antiquity, and among the early
" ones particularly by Thucydides. But the very
" fame of the principal persons and events cele-
" brated by Homer seems to have led some to
" question their reality."

The existence of the islands in which the action of the Odyssey lies has been most discredited of any of the geographical facts contained in Homer. The whole scene has been impugned as fabulous, together with the marvellous exploits of the hero there related. Yet, that the poet should so far wander from reality, in describing scenes which he is reported * to have actually visited, is at least improbable, considering the accuracy of his geography in general.

An opportunity of residing in the Ionian islands for some years could hardly have been neglected by the author, as a source of amusement, to compare the descriptions in the *Odyssey* with such local facts

* Herodotus, in the life of Homer attributed to him, relates, that Homer was born at Smyrna; that he was early impressed with the desire of travelling, and that he took the opportunity of the departure of Mentes, who had arrived from the vicinity of Leucadia, a man of learning and experience, to accompany him on his return. They arrived in Ithaca where Mentes left Homer, now afflicted with ophthalmia, under the care of his friend, Mentor, until he had completed his voyage to Leucadia. That the Ithacans related to the poet during his residence amongst them, the exploits of Ulysses; that he grew convalescent there, and prosecuted further voyages with Mentes upon the return of the latter from Leucadia, and, that Homer, in gratitude for the benefits which he had received from Mentes and Mentor, introduced them both into the action of the Odyssey.

as offered themselves in evidence of the poet's geographical accuracy. The writings of other ancient authors, by whom allusion is made to them, were subjected to the same test, and the result of the observations and inquiries made are here offered to the public.

To the literary reader, who may not have the opportunity of visiting these interesting islands, the author hopes that his book may not be altogether unacceptable. He can have but little pretensions, he allows, to learned acumen; yet, a residence of some years upon the spot, joined to such knowledge as he may possess of ancient history and literature may, perhaps, have afforded him the means of entertaining, if not of informing the learned class of his readers.

To those whom professional pursuits or amusement may draw to these islands, he has endeavoured to render the work as useful as he could, by diligently collating the different authors, and comparing their accounts with things as they actually are. With the same view he has procured a map of each island, the most accurate that any plans or docu-

ments existing could supply him with. These were compiled chiefly from the plans of the Venetian and French Engineers; to which have been added, the corrections made by the late Lieutenant Scott of the British Engineers, an officer who, through the ardour and enthusiasm with which he prosecuted his professional duties, sacrificed his valuable life, and fell a lamented victim to the remittent fever, which he contracted upon the Continent near Corfù, at the close of the Autumn of 1815.

The author is indebted to his friends, Mr. George Smith, late of the Royal Engineer department, and Mr. Townsend, 75th regiment, for the compilation from the above documents, improved by their joint observations with the author.

Of the different books which have been consulted, the beautiful work of Sir William Gell upon Ithaca is by far the most interesting, as a work of science and of taste: little has been left in describing the island of Ithaca, which that elegant tourist has not already given to the public. Had Sir William carried his researches to the other islands, nothing

would have been left to be described, and the present work should not have made its appearance. St. Sauveur, a French writer, has given the best description of the islands in general: the author has been indebted to this work for much useful information. Holland, Williams, and other tourists, have merely touched upon the subject.

Amongst the number of works which have been written upon the islands must not be forgotten the elegant little poem entitled, "*Horæ Ionicæ*," which, including the notes, perhaps, contains, in a compressed space, all the literary information concerning them, that may be desirable to be known.

Mustoxidi, a native, who styles himself, the *Historiographer of the Ionian Islands!* abuses St. Sauveur, although he appears to have profited a good deal by the other's diligence. This book is written in Italian, but is scarcely more than a compilation from Homer, Thucydides, and other writers. He shews much ingenuity, however, in tracing out the form of government in Corcyra from the ancient inscriptions found there in the time of the Venetians: these were chiefly decrees of the senate. For

this, his fourth book, or, *Republica Corcirese*, is very interesting. This writer's machiavelism appears pretty plainly in the opinion which he passes upon the conduct of his countrymen, the Corcyreans, in the time of the Persian war *.

Of the other writers, Mercati, a native, has written an account, in Italian, of Zante, from which the author has selected a few observations. Baron

* The Corcyreans had been solicited to join in the common cause of Greece against Xerxes—the passage in Mustoxidi, above alluded to, runs thus: "Bella è lusinghiera si fu la risposta ch' essi diedero, dicendo, che non lascerebbero soccombere la Grecia per trascuraggine, imperocche essi pure caduti sarebbono in una servitù vergognosa. Ma poi allestiti sessanta navi, le fecero partire ben' tardi con ordini d' ancorarsi tra Pilo e Tenaro nella costa di Laconia, e di cuivi aspettare l'esito della guerra." In English: excellent and flattering was the answer which they gave, saying, that they would not allow Greece to fall through any neglect of their's, since they too would become vile slaves. But afterwards getting ready sixty ships, they made them depart, very tardily, with orders to anchor between Pylos and Tenarum on the coast of Laconia, and there to wait the event of the war.

They thus wished to make their peace with Xerxes had he been victorious; and the excuse they had for their inactivity to the Athenians was, that they could not double Cape Malea: Ingenuous people! Herodotus, from whom Mustoxidi extracts the account, however forms a very different opinion; concluding the chapter with this very reproachful remark applied to the Corcyreans: "αυτοί μεν ούτω διακρυσαντο τους Ελληνας." "In this manner did these fellows shake off the Greeks" *Herod.* lib. vii. §. 168.

Teotoky, the president of the senate, has also written a little tract in French upon the subject, from which a few remarks have been taken. Lastly, of books which have been consulted, is a small treatise witten in Latin by a Corfiot, and published at Venice; the name of the author is not affixed to the work, but, like most of the others enumerated, this book is in a great measure but a paraphrase upon the *Odyssey*.—The title of the work is, *Primordia Corciræ*.

The author has not been sparing in his extracts from the ancient writers, particularly Homer. His object in adding these to the bulk of the work was, to obviate the inconvenience arising to many in not possessing the authors quoted. This is felt by gentlemen residing in the islands as well as by tourists, who cannot encumber themselves with all the books which they might wish to consult upon the spot. Long extracts from Pope have been made for the same reason, and for the purpose of accommodating such of his readers as may not be acquainted with ancient Greek.

To enter into the history of the events which have happened, and are now daily occurring in

Greece, or their political consequences, is, not within the limits of this essay. The author disavows any sentiments, which might give rise to an imputation, of his wishing to throw obloquy upon the character of the Greeks in general, or of aspersing the glorious cause of liberty in which they are engaged. He has described the character of the Ionian islanders, such as an acquaintance with them for more than five years has warranted him to do: whether the hitherto hopeless and interminable state of slavery of the continental Greeks, and those of the Archipelago, under the Turks, may have equally degraded them, he does not assert, although with the exception of a few mountainous districts, particularly Souli and Maina, he believes it to be the fact; and, that the firmness and perseverance they have shown in the present conflict, is the offspring of a spirit of freedom, generated in revenge, and elevated by success.

The Greeks arose almost out of their ruins at the invasion of Xerxes: the evil with which they were then threatened was external, against which they could oppose the internal and natural resources of the nation; in the present struggle they have had to

contend with an internal and deadly foe, which grew up, and identified itself, with their very existence. Like their ancestors, their weakness lies in disunion; their strength, in their naval superiority, in those mountainous strong holds with which their country so singularly abounds, and, above all, in their unanimity.

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HISTORICAL AND TOPOGRAPHICAL

ESSAY

UPON THE

IONIAN ISLANDS,

&c.

CHAPTER I.

Geographical position of the Islands—Importance of, considered politically — Changes of Government in the early ages—The Corcyreans the primary cause of the Peloponnesian war.

THE Ionian Islands extend in a chain opposite the coasts of Lower Albania or Epirus, and Acarnania chiefly. Zante and Cerigo are more remotely situated to the southward, and opposite the coast of the Morea. The mean distance from the continent is about twelve miles, but at St^a. Maura, the channel which divides it from the main land does not exceed one hundred yards in breadth. They thus embrace a considerable portion of the

Turkish frontier, extending from Butrinto to the most southern point of the Morea opposite Cerigo; a space which is included between the thirty-sixth and fortieth degrees of north latitude, and comprises the entrances into the gulphs of Venice, Arta, and Lepanto.

This position, by which the Turkish empire is most assailable upon the part of Austria, and by which the Venetians commenced their inroads upon that power before, must always be regarded as of importance, so long as the destruction of the Ottoman throne, or its support, can enter into the contemplation of the powers of Europe. The former event had long been anticipated by both Austria and Russia, the mutual jealousy of which powers, however, it would appear, operated to frustrate the designs of each respectively*.

The population amounts to about 200,000 souls. Whatever political weight this people might have held in the scale of ancient nations, their importance can now be regarded only prospectively; whether it be the object of Great Britain to adopt them as colonists, or to effect such a change in them, morally and physically, as to form a nucleus of liberty, whence a spirit of freedom may emanate, and disseminating itself over all Greece, raise there a power capable of emancipating and maintaining

*Vaudoncourt's Ionian Islands.

itself free from Turkish slavery—the consummation of such an event must be hailed by all that feel interested in whatever is great and noble in the history of nations.

In the heroic age, the form of government was universally monarchical throughout all the Grecian cities and states, which afterwards became so many republics. A similar revolution probably took place in all the Greek islands and their cities, each of which assumed a democratical form of government: Thus the kingdom of Alcinous was changed into the commonwealth of Corcyra; and there were four of these republican cities in the island of Cephalonia, which had been before an appanage to the crown of Ulysses. The colonies were chiefly sent out from Corinth during and subsequent to this revolutionary period. About the same time a quarrel arose between the Corcyreans and the Corinthians relative to the people of Epidamnum, (now Durazzo,) which was colonized by the Corcyreans; and the assistance rendered to the latter by the Athenians in this dispute, was made the pretext of a war between the great republics of Athens and Corinth, in which nearly all the Grecian cities became ultimately involved. Corfù was at this time a powerful maritime state, having more than one hundred gallies at her command, and was alone equal to contend with Corinth. The real cause, however, of this, which was called the Peloponnesian war, was the mutual jealousy sub-

sisting between the Athenians and Corinthians; a spirit which was excited by the latter throughout all the other states against the growing power of Athens: these several republics contending, not to preserve an equilibrium, but each struggling to make the scale preponderate in itself.

The policy of the Athenians, to avert the imputation and the consequent odium of breaking the truce, in the affair between the Corinthians and Corcyreans, was remarkable in the first rencounter; they secretly forbade their ships to join in the fight, unless the Corinthians actually made a landing upon the island*. This principle of forbearance from aggression or assault, and respect for the law, which should be common to all nations, shewed a high political moral feeling, which, if properly managed, would have laid the foundation for a balance of power, by which the liberties and the independence of the whole might have been preserved. But in those early ages, the abstract principles of political justice, founded upon the basis of the common good, were unknown, as they have continued to be, excepting in theory, until these latter times, when a new era seems to be about to burst upon the destinies of mankind†.

* Thucydides, lib. 1.

† It was hoped at the time this was written that the Congress of European powers would have realized this political state of happiness, but the manifesto published subsequently to the Congress of Laybach augurs most unfavourably for it.

There is but little else of importance recorded of these islands. They severally took part in the quarrels of their neighbours as the circumstances of affinity or interest dictated, and to follow up their history as a people, if it were even practicable to hold them together under that view, would be but to trifle with the records and monuments of the greatest nations that have existed. It shall therefore be the object of these pages to collect any detached memorials that may have presented themselves to the diligence of the author, and to recall or to offer them to the notice of the reader under the heads to which they more particularly belong: that is, in the account of each island respectively.

To give a brief sketch of their modern history.—In the sixteenth century, the Venetian republic wrested the islands from Turkey, as offering so many favourable points for commencing her inroads upon that empire. She successively possessed herself of the maritime towns upon the continent, and lastly of the whole of the Morea. We shall not follow her up in her triumphs, but shall content ourselves with fixing this as the era of the first union of the islands under the despotic power of Venice. The French having overrun Italy in 1797, took them from the Venetians, and were in their turn expelled by the Russians and Turks in 1799. The mutual jealousy of these powers prevented either occupying them exclusively, and, in 1802, they were declared to be an independent state,

with the title of, The Republic of the Seven Islands. In 1807 they again fell into the hands of the French, who, in 1814, were obliged to surrender Corfù, which they had alone retained against the victorious arms of Great Britain, to the Allied Powers. By the treaty of Paris, dated Nov. 5, 1815, they were finally consigned to the protection of Great Britain, under the title of, The United States of the Ionian Islands. On the 28th December, 1817, was promulgated the new constitution, and on the 1st of January, 1818, the installation of the new government took place with great formality.

CHAPTER II.

CORFÙ.

Ὀκτωκαιδεκάτῃ δ' ἐφάνη ὄρεα σκιόεντα
Γαίης Φαιήκων, οἵ τ' ἀγχίστοι πέλον αὐτῶ.
Εἴσατο δ' ὡς ὅτε εἶπον ἐν ἠερόεντι μετώπῳ. Od. b. v. l. 279.

Then swell'd to sight Phœacia's dusky coast,
And woody mountains, half in vapour lost;
That lay before him indistinct and vast,
Like a broad Shield amid the wat'ry waste. Pope.

Island of Corfù—Its various appellations—form of Government under Alcinous—Difficulties in reconciling its identity with Scheria answered—direct proofs thereof—Topography agrees almost exactly with Homer's description—Ample proofs of the site of Corcyra—Site of an aqueduct discovered by the French engineers—Mr. Prossalendi's ingenious conjecture relative to it—Fountain and Temple of Apollo—Population of Corcyra greatly exceeded that of the present day—Some reflections upon the Political Economy of those days.

CORFÙ is the most considerable of the Islands in the Ionian Sea. From the earliest ages it had been regarded as a place of importance; its remote

and insular position affording it security, as its naval strength did, considerable weight and influence amongst the other commonwealths of Greece. In the time of the Romans it served as a convenient step between the Italian and Grecian continents, and greatly facilitated the extension of conquest and dominion of that mighty people. If we ascend to the more remote ages, and can afford any credit to the poetical descriptions of Homer, we shall find its individual importance to have been still greater, on account of the riches, the population, and the maritime skill of its inhabitants. This period of its history is, like that of all the neighbouring states, much intermixed with, and obscured by fable.

It was first called Drepanum (δρεπανον), which some writers say was derived from its being the scene of the bloody act committed by Saturn upon the person of his father Cœlum. To this is added, that Saturn having effected his purpose in maiming Cœlum by means of a reaping-hook, flung the instrument from him, and that it fell in Messina in Sicily, which assumed its curved form, and its name of Zancle, from this circumstance: moreover, that the drops of blood which fell from the hook upon the earth produced the race of giants.

It was afterwards called Scheria, and the people Pheacians; the etymology of which words is as fanciful as that of Drepanum. Scheria was imagined

to be derived from the word ἴσχειν, (ischein) to restrain; because Ceres being apprehensive that the rivers flowing from the continent would convert the island into a peninsula like Leucadia, entreated of Neptune to prevent so fatal a catastrophe, whose interposition accordingly preserved to it its insular figure. Pheacia was supposed by some to be derived from Pheax the son of Neptune by Korkura. Others imagined it to have been so called from Phaic, an Arabian term, signifying great opulence, dignity, and virtue. With regard to the former conjecture, it is not probable that it should have been first called Pheacia after the son, and subsequently Corcyra after the mother: the supposition carries with it a sort of anachronism. With regard to the latter appellation, there is just as much uncertainty as to its etymology, some deriving it as above from Korkura the daughter of Asopus, who was ravished by Neptune; and others from Korkura a sort of boat for which the Corcyreans were famous. The island was also called Machris from its length. And lastly it got the name of Corfù from the word κορυφω (Korupho) to overtop, on account of the two turret-like rocks upon which the citadel is built.

The Pheacians, according to the testimony of Homer, were brought from Hyperia near the Cyclops, who obliged the people of that country to emigrate under Nausithous, the father of Alcinous, to Scheria. The form of government was

monarchical, mixed with aristocratical, resembling that of the Spartans under their kings and Ephori. Of the latter aristocratical part of the government, were twelve members, denominated by Homer, σκηπτοῦχοι βασίλεες; not sceptre bearing kings, an interpretation which leads to the absurd idea of thirteen monarchs reigning together in the island, but magistrates; the sceptre being the symbol of justice as well as of regal power. There are some other difficulties in identifying this island with the Pheacia of Homer. First, he describes (in the words of Nausicaa*) the Pheacians as being remote from all other people, and that they had no commerce nor intercourse with any. This, however, may mean comparatively with the other islands and states; or, perhaps, together with the description of the perpetual succession of fruit in the gardens of Alcinous, it may be considered a poetical licence. Some allowance must be made for the poet's indulging his imagination occasionally; and, whether it be made or not, he is sure to take it himself whenever he pleases. The circumstance of the Pheacians being unacquainted with and averse to strangers, makes the condescension of Nausicaa, in aiding a destitute individual like the ship-wrecked Ulysses, the greater; and heightens the softness and amiability of her character. It may be added, that the virgin boldness with which

* Od. 6. b. l. 204-5. and again 279.

she receives the accost of Ulysses, when her female attendants were scared away, so far from detracting from female modesty, elevates our ideas of her purity of thought, and displays the superiority of her rank and deportment. The impression which this princely demeanour makes upon the hero is beautifully unfolded in his supplication to her:

> —But fearful to offend, by wisdom sway'd,
> At awful distance he accosts the maid,
> If from the skies a Goddess, or if earth
> (Imperial Virgin) boast thy glorious birth,
> To thee I bend! if in that bright disguise
> Thou visit earth, a daughter of the skies,
> Hail, Dian, Hail, &c.
>
> POPE'S *Odysscy*, Book 6. v. 173.

That Homer's descriptions apply generally to Corfù is quite apparent, and sufficient to the argument of its identity. First, Nausicaa's nurse coming from Epirus. Secondly, the sailing of the Pheacian boat, directly for Ithaca, where it arrives before the next morning, and in a port with which the sailors are so well acquainted. This it must be admitted supposes the identity of the modern and ancient Ithaca, which, however, will be attempted to be proved hereafter. Thirdly, in the fourteenth book of the Odyssey, Ulysses, although in the assumed character of a Cretan, banished on account of murder, in his story to Eumeus, plainly indicates the situation of Scheria, which he has just left; saying, that he

came last from Thesprotia; by the king of which country he had been hospitably entertained. Thus mixing up the real facts and occurrences, which were unnecessary to his purpose to conceal, with those which his assumed character required of him to invent.

There is not a vestige remaining that can be recognized as having belonged to the city of the Pheacians. The antiquarians of Corfù say that it occupied the site of Corcyra, and that the latter city was built upon the ruins of the former. It is worth investigating how far this opinion may be correct, by comparing the topography of the place with Homer's description; and although the speculation be attended with no particular utility, the conjectures that obtrude upon one examining it with the Odyssey in his hand, may at least afford amusement.

At three miles distance southward of the town of Corfù, is the narrow opening of the inlet called Peschiera Chalichiopulo, which immediately expands itself into a lake, indenting the island to a considerable extent. The whole of this lake is now very shallow, from the constant alluvion of the soil by the rains; a circumstance which joined to the excessive summer heat, renders it extremely dangerous to reside, at that season, any where within the influence of its exhalations. The lake, in its wide expansion, approximating the sea coast

again northwards, forms the land, which is contained between the two waters, into a sort of isthmus. Upon this isthmus is the little village of Castrades, situated in the middle of the ruins of Corcyra. To the northward of the lake Chalichiopulo, the island becomes again indented by the great bay of Corfù, whose bottom terminates at Govino; and into this is emptied the largest river in the island, which, by way of eminence, is called Potamo, the River. Let us now compare the passage in the fifth book of the Odyssey with the localities existing here, and we can scarcely forbear concluding, that this was the spot contemplated by Homer in his description. Ulysses in his approach to the shore seizes upon a rock with both his hands, to escape the shock of an immense wave, which thus passes him by. The wave, however, refluent, (παλιρροθιον) casts him far out to sea again, from which, by a mighty exertion and the assistance of Minerva, he extricates himself, and the wave, (continuing its retrogade course,) regurgitates *back to the continent*, (ἐρευγεται ἠπειρονδε,) implying the proximity of the continent. Nothing more clearly indicates the locality than this passage. Let us suppose then that this is, the jove-flowing river, which received Ulysses; and that here, Nausicaa, having fed and clothed him, conducted him thence to the city. The interval between the mouth of the river, and the assumed site of the city of the Pheacians; the scenery, and the objects met with upon the road, the forum, the temple of

Neptune, the naval arsenal, the grove of Minerva, the fountain, and the gardens of Alcinous, may be traced in idea by an imagination not very vivid, nor given much to exaggeration, amid the ruins, and the beautiful scenery that adorn this place at the present day.

The description of the double port and the narrow entrance, applies accurately to the mouth of the lake Chalichiopulo. The fountain of the Pheacians may have occupied the site of one found in the ruins of Corcyra, which was dedicated to Apollo, to be hereafter described; and the little island which lies in the mouth of the lake Chalichiopulo, may be supposed to represent the Pheacian boat, converted into a rock, upon its return from Ithaca. Its form bears a fanciful resemblance to a boat upset. Thucydides also, in book the third, distinguishes two ports in Corcyra, one called Hillaicus, which the people took possession of along with the citadel, and another, which he describes as looking towards the continent, and the forum. Hillaicus was probably on the east side of lake Chalichiopulo, together with the citadel and the forum; and the second port was on the west, looking towards the continent and the forum.

But however speculative the notions of the reality of the city of the Pheacians may be, the ruins upon the isthmus in the vicinity of Castrades,

afford direct evidence of the existence of a great and extensive city, which, the inscriptions and coins found there, indicate to have been the less ancient Corcyra. Although most of the traces of this city are literally levelled with the dust, sufficient marks remain above ground, as broken pottery and tiles, and more have been discovered deeply buried in the soil, to prove its original extent and magnificence. The superficial indications are met with soon after passing out of the Porta Reale at Corfù, and are found scattered over a space of at least six miles in circumference. And if we take into the calculation the ancient columns found in the sea at Perama, (described in the French Military Report, drawn up by the engineers employed in cutting the ditch across the isthmus,) we must conclude, that the city of Corcyra reached this point, sweeping round the whole margin of the lake, and terminating at Perama, the passage where the ferry-boat plies across it's narrow entrance to the place called the one-gun battery. In this space are scattered fragments of fluted columns of the Doric, and a few of the Ionic order, broken pieces of pottery, of excellent workmanship, and beautifully ornamented, mosaic, large masses of square stone, and foundations of great buildings, buried many feet under the surface. In digging the ditch across the isthmus, the French engineers came upon an aqueduct in three points, the source of which they suppose was at Mount St. Ellena. The ingenious Mr. Prossalendi of Corfù imagines, that some physical change must

have taken place in the topography, since the construction of the aqueduct; for, at present, there is no source of water, nor appearance of any place that could have furnished it, any where near its direction. The line followed up leads to a little olive mount, which terminates by a precipitous descent into the Govino bay, having no spring, and being incapable of ever supplying one. The aqueduct fed a fountain at a temple which was dedicated to Apollo. An oblong, conical, stone pillar, the lower half fluted and cylindrical, marked the spot, with the following inscription in very old letters upon the top: ΡΟΟΣ ΠΥΘΑΙΟΣ. (the Pythian fountain). The pillar is about twelve feet high, and is to be seen at Mr. Prossalendi's museum*, together with many other interesting pieces of architecture and sculpture of the ancient Corcyra. Two branches of the aqueduct above mentioned were found leading to the base of the pillar; and near it is a temple, marked out by the plinths of a quadrangular colonade, which the French uncovered in digging the great wet ditch.

The population of Corcyra cannot be estimated at less than 100,000 inhabitants, taking all these

* Most of the valuable coins and inscriptions are in the possession of Venetian families. Were they to be purchased by the government, and added to the Corfù collection, the whole would form a very interesting and patriotic monument. Mustoxidi has copied many of the decrees of the Corcyra senate, from these marbles, which are very curious.

circumstances into consideration; and indeed if 120,000, or about double that of the island at the present day, be taken as the probable number of souls contained in that single city, the calculation cannot far exceed the truth. The character of the architecture and the sculpture, with the testimony of its ancient inscriptions and coins, prove its luxury and riches, supported as it is by the evidence of history.

It is difficult to conceive how the inhabitants of this, as well as many other great neighbouring cities, could have subsisted in those days; since at the lowest calculation, the population of the islands was probably four times greater than it is at present. To these are to be added the cities of Epidamnum or Dyrachium, Apollonia, Buthrotum, Ambracia, Argos Amphilocum, Stratos, Alyzea, and Æneadæ at the mouth of the Achelous, all in the vicinity, and all which, the testimony of ancient writers, conjoined with the actual evidence furnished by the ruins of each city, shew to have been great, magnificent, and populous. Agriculture could not, in its then unimproved state, have supplied the necessaries of life to such a mass. We know the difficulty of maintaining the present reduced number of inhabitants of the islands, who do not upon an average raise more corn than supplies one fourth their consumption. And it would appear, from the ancient inscriptions*, that

* Vide Mustoxidi on the Ionian Islands.

Corfù was cultivated in ancient times nearly in the same manner as at present: the decrees of grants of land from the senate and people of Corcyra to individuals, are generally specified, as so many acres, of vines, or olives.

It is, notwithstanding this, probable, that more corn was grown in those days than now, as the vineyards and olive woods are always encroaching upon the corn lands, and large olive woods now occupy the place of what were once extensive corn fields: as, for example, the old wood on the plain behind the town of St^a. Maura. The following considerations will explain this falling off in the growth of corn. The value of an olive tree, when once it begins to yield its crops, is very great in proportion to the ground it covers; and the labour and expense, which it afterwards requires, is very inconsiderable compared with the gain from its produce. Hence arises the difficulty of altering the mode of employing the agriculturist's capital, if it were even advantageous to force it into that of the culture of corn*. No owner of an olive tree, which may continue to bear fruit for

* I have understood that it was the policy of the Venetian government to discourage agriculture, and to encourage the cultivation of the olive; thus to render the islands dependant upon the parent state for a supply of the indispensable article corn, and in return to furnish that (viz. oil) in which the other was deficient. Thus not only ensuring their subjection, but rendering them more beneficial as colonies.

centuries, will cut it down for the sake of growing corn in its place; he is contented with the scanty crop he can raise in its shade, and the real value of his ground is identified with that of the tree which covers it. It was by the value of each olive tree, that the appraisement, of nearly the whole of the territory of Parga, was made by the British and Turkish commissioners.

Commerce, without the assistance of manufactures, could have gone but a little way in making up the balance against those people, in drawing their supply of necessaries from abroad. The skill attributed by Homer to the Pheacian women in weaving, can hardly be taken into account here, in calculating their internal resources, the passage is—Od. b. 7. line 105:

Of the Fifty Handmaids in the Palace of Alcinous.

" Some ply the loom; their busy fingers move
Like poplar leaves when Zephyr fans the grove.
Not more renown'd the men of Scheria's isle,
For sailing arts and all the naval toil,
Than works of female skill their women's pride,
The flying shuttle through the threads to guide:
Pallas to these her double gifts imparts,
Inventive genius, and industrious arts."

POPE.

Could their great maritime skill then, by making them the carriers of other countries, have made up the deficiency? They perhaps derived a considerable part of their subsistence from the sea.

At the present time great quantities of fish, particularly mullets, are taken in these seas, and many large boats from the Neapolitan dominions come here for the purpose of fishing.

In the selection of a place to build a city, the ancient Greeks seem uniformly to have kept three points in view. First, the vicinity of a plain fit for cultivation; 2dly, a good harbour; and 3dly, commanding heights, which they strongly walled for defence, and called acropoli. The town was often built at a distance from the harbour, as was the city of Athens; and sometimes upon almost inaccessible heights, in order to cover them from the attacks of their enemies. The positions of Leucate, of Ellomenos, of the old city at Vasilichi in Leucadia; of Cranii, Samos, Palæ and Pronos, in Cephalonia; of Ithaca and Alalcomene in the island of Ithaca, were of this description.

The expense and labour employed in facing the stone merely, might be nearly computed by a simple calculation. As to that of raising it, and of placing the enormous blocks one upon the other, we can form no estimation, not being acquainted with the mechanism which they used. To calculate for example the labour and cost of simply facing the stone in the walls of Cranii. A workman of the present day will face about two square yards of stone of the same hardness

as those of which the walls are constructed, and the daily wages of a stone-cutter are about three piastres and a half a day. The superficial measure of the cut stone may be approximated in this way. The length of the wall, including that which surrounded the city directly, and the two curtain walls, one defending it upon the south, and the other upon the south-east, as will be hereafter described, is about 7306 paces. In the south-east wall are twenty-one projecting towers, eight paces square, whose two sides (not yet counted,) 16 multiplied by 21, amount to 336 paces. Total length, 7642, which, at 30 inches for each pace, gives 6368⅓ yards. If we allow four yards for the height of the walls, part of them still standing at ten feet, the total in length and height is 25,473⅓ square yards. For the two edges and two ends of each stone, which are also cut to fit each other, one and one-half the same number of square yards may be allowed, supposing that the upper and under surface of each stone together equalled the front, and the two ends one-half the front. This makes the whole measure of cut stone in square yards 44,578; which, divided by two square yards, a workman's daily quota of labour, gives 22,289 workmen in one day, or divided by 500 workmen, gives 44½ days' employment to 500 workmen, merely to face the stone used in the defence of Cranii. The expense in piastres would be 78,011½, each piastre being about ten-pence English in value.

CHAPTER III.

Description of the Island of Corfù—Canal or Corfù Basin—Mountains—Magnificent scenery—Soil—productive of remittent fever—incautious exposure to its effects deprecated—Excursion to the northern extremity of the Island—Beautiful vale, called Val di Roppa—Town of Corfù and defences—Esplanade—Palace of St. Michael and St. George—Theatre—Opera—Senate House—Churches—(From St. Sauveur)—Election of Protopapa—Excommunication—Procession of St. Speridion.

IF we inquire into the claim of the island of Corfù to any importance or consideration at the present day, we shall find it to be small indeed. In the time of war, the protection it might afford to an enemy, by its command upon the entrance of the Adriatic, renders it an object of some interest to the British government.

The island is situated at the mouth of that gulph, extending opposite to the coast of Epirus, from which it is separated by the Corfù canal. The eastern coast is considerably incurvated, so as to shut in the whole canal nearly at its extreme points,

giving it the appearance of an expansive lake, which is surrounded on every side by mountains. On the north it is bounded by a fine mass of mountain, called St. Salvador, which stretches across the channel, nearly closing it up at that end. The approximation of the southern extremity again at Capo Bianco to the coast of Albania nearly shuts in this magnificent basin. The figure of the mountain St. Salvador is very remarkable, consisting of a long horizontal table, included between two singular cones that tower up at the extremities. This is by much the loftiest range in the island. Its direction is nearly east and west, being as it were the last disruptured isolated mass of the great Acroceraunian chain. The fall of the mountain is exceedingly bold towards the head of the Corfù basin, and gives a very grand effect to this beautiful scenery. This is the celebrated Mount Istone of the ancients, where, in the Peloponnesian war, the remains of the aristocratical party of the Corcyreans made their last desperate stand. After various alternations of fortune and unheard-of cruelties committed by the democrats and aristocrats reciprocally, 500 of the latter, having escaped the massacre committed by the democrats under the protection of the Athenian fleet commanded by Eurymedon, fled to the continent. From thence they returned secretly, and disembarking on the island, lest they should ever be again induced to quit it, they burnt their boats. They then fortified themselves upon this commanding height, from

whence they were dislodged by the other party only with the assistance of the Athenian fleet.

Of the island mountains there remains another range, which forms a right angle nearly with St. Salvador, the direction being about north and south, terminating in a lofty mass to the southward, called Mount Decà. The elevation of this last is, however, less than that of the first described range. It is greatest at the western coast, which is exceedingly bold; and from thence the general surface of the island slopes gradually down to the water edge along its eastern coast. This conformation gives the greater portion of the island an eastern aspect, nearly the whole surface of which becomes displayed, as the passenger moves up the streights; exhibiting a rich picture, ever varying with the tints of the olive and of the fresh foliage of the vine, studded with villages, peaceful and happy under the protection of a just government, and flourishing under the flag of a great and free nation.

With this character of scenery at the Corfù side of the channel is finely contrasted, the naked savage features of the Albanian mountains, which, tracing out a rough outline upon the eastern horizon, elevate their rugged snowy tops to the clouds. Uncultivated and depopulated * wilds render horrid

* The remains of many great cities are swallowed up in the deep forests and underwood with which the country is over-run. The author has traversed a good deal, particularly of the part opposite

there the scene where despotism still more horrid erects her bloody throne, and with the sceptre of desolation sweeps the circle of her drear dominions. Of this great chain of mountains, the ancient Pindus, are, first the Chimariot or the old Acroceraunians, next the Cassiopæan, and the Suliot ridges, that last refuge of Grecian * liberty, which terminating

to Santa Maura, where the country is impassable in the coverts, excepting through the devious passages made by the half-wild cattle, and wild beasts with which they abound. His object was chiefly to discover if there were any traces of the city of Neritos, which, according to Strabo, was abandoned by the inhabitants, to settle in Leucate. In this search he failed, although from the many accounts given by different persons, of ruins in that neighbourhood, a more diligent inquiry might be attended with success.

† The Suliots were the last people who fell, after a most gallant resistance, under the despotic power of Ali Pacha; and the remnant of their little band found protection ultimately upon the rock of Parga, after a struggle of fourteen years. In this war, Ali was obliged to bring an army of 25,000 men again 6000 Suliots, before he could conquer them, and was then only enabled to succeed by building a chain of forts through the mountains, by means of which he dislodged them from post to post.—Vide Vaudoncourt, Holland, St. Sauveur, &c. for the romantic history of the Suliots.

Whatever was the policy which allowed the surrender of Parga, the event, however to be deplored upon the account here stated, viz. its connexion with the struggles of the Greeks for liberty, was not attended with those exaggerated circumstances with which interested malcontents attempted to falsify and discolour it. The Pargonots collecting and burning the bones of their ancestors before their departure, and their being dragged from their homes to inhabit an uncultivated rock, are mere fabrications. The fact is, that this people are at present happily and contentedly situated, being identified with the population of each island, where fancy

in the insulated peak of Parga, formed there the last sad vanishing point upon which her expiring hopes were fixed.

The mountains of Corfù are composed of compact limestone chiefly. Masses of gypsum occur occasionally. There is a quarry of white marble under the western peak of St. Salvador, of a very fine grain, and well adapted for the uses of statuary. The lesser hills consist mostly of an argillaceous soil mixed with lime. The soil of the district of Leftimo is altogether composed of this clay, which forms indeed the substratum to all the low and cultivatable lands in the islands. Thus the richest parts of Cephalonia, Anoi, and Livatò, are of this composition. This clay contains very abundantly that deleterious principle which is evolved by the united operation of heat and moisture, and which, as was before mentioned, renders the country a place so dangerous to reside in during the summer. In Zante the beautiful country villas are all deserted by the natives at this season, and are sometimes very eagerly and very rashly sought after by English families, who cannot divest themselves of the notions of happiness attached to a country retirement in the summer at home. So fatal a delusion cannot be too strongly exposed in order to be guarded against.

or their connexions led them to settle in, and having received full compensation for their property, they enjoy there all the rights and privileges with the security of Ionian subjects.

A considerable portion of the island lies to the northward of St. Salvador, looking toward the continent of Italy. The mountain mass becomes gradually lowered at that side, terminating in gently undulating swells, intersected with more or less extensive vallies. There are many large villages here and much cultivated land. Upon the north-east coast are the ruins of the ancient city of Cassiope.

A favourite and very interesting excursion is through this part of the island, to view the ruins at Castel St. Angelo, and the remains of Cassiope. The journey is about three days ride. The road winds round the bay to Govino, and has been repaired and rendered excellent for about two miles, as far as the salt works; it is the intention of government to carry it on through the country. The remainder of the road from Govino is but a beaten mule track, leading through the olive woods, and up the water courses in the ravines to the mountains: they are however like all the others in these countries, denominated roads. The scenery is wild and romantic, and to the traveller at least, the want of a regular road is amply compensated by the delightful sense of liberty he experiences, unlimited by the dull monotonous lines of wall and hedge, to wander at pleasure, now courting the freshness of the friendly olive shade, and again profiting by the softness of the green velvet carpet which nature spreads out before him. The visitor is thus conducted by a devious

course over beautiful swelling hills covered with wood, sometimes interrupted by deep gullies, where the water has cut its passage before him, and leads him a difficult but necessary way through thick coverts of evergreen shrubs, until he reaches the pretty rural village of Scriperò, at about three hours ride from town. This sweet spot is situated under a lofty towering peak of the mountain, which rises almost perpendicularly above it. On the height beyond Scriperò the "Stormy Adriatic" bursts at once upon the view with the Acroceraunian mountains—"infames scopulos"—Italy and Albania are stretched out before our traveller's eye, while Fanu and the other islets lie at his feet. The high bold western coast of the island descends from this point towards Liftimo, and as he faces southwards, the lovely valley of Roppa, opens out from one extremity to the other before him.

This is by far the most picturesque landscape in the island. The valley consists of a rich plain, beautifully variegated with wood, and thickly cultivated vineyards, spreading out as far as the eye can reach. A low ridge of hills running through, divides the plain its whole length into two vallies, the Val di Roppa, shut in by the western range of mountains upon one side, and the low range of hills upon the other; and the Val di St. Onofrio, which runs parallel to it upon the eastern side of the central ridge. A small river also marks out the boundary between the two vallies. Carrying the eye still more to the eastward,

the promontory, upon which the city and fortress stand, stretches out towards the Albanian continent, its turret like rocks diminished in the distance. To these Virgil alludes in the third Æ. l. 291.

Protinus aerias Pheacum abscondimus arces.

An appearance that must exactly take place in passing up the channel from Corfù. The Corfù basin next appears, locked in by the huge barrier of the Pindus chain, fringing the horizon with its splendent snows.

The town of Corfù contains about 17,000 inhabitants, but no census of the population of this island, has been taken for a considerable time: 60,000 is supposed to be about the number of souls in town and country. It is situated nearly on a level with the sea, at the root of a promontory, which terminates in an extraordinary double rock upon which the fortress is built. Corfù is walled, and has been rendered a place of great strength from the number and position of the outworks. The sea washes part of the south, and the whole of the north wall. On the east the city is open to the esplanade and the old fortress, and on the west it is protected by a strong wall with ditches and extensive outworks. This latter looking toward the island, is the side upon which it is assailable by land, and upon which the Turks made their attack, when it was defended in so gallant a manner by the celebrated Marshal

Schulemberg. The Turks had made a violent assault in the expectation of carrying the place by storm, when Schulemberg made a sally with part of the garrison, attacked them suddenly in the rear and defeated them with great loss. A statue of white marble with an appropiate inscription was erected to the brave Marshal, which stands upon the esplanade near the draw-bridge.

The defences of this city have been erected at various periods, and the whole expense of constructing them must have been very great. They are so extensive, that it would require an army of about 10,000 soldiers to man them, and the charges of repair greatly exceed the means of the revenue at present. Of the works, the principal is the old fortress, or citadel, seated upon the double rock at the entrance of the harbour. It is surrounded by the sea excepting upon the west, where however it is separated from the esplanade and town by a very deep ditch with a draw-bridge. This place is exceedingly strong, from its insular position, and the steepness on every side of the rock upon which it stands. The garrison consists at present of one whole regiment, and two companies of artillery. In the mouth of the harbour at a mile distance from, and parallel to, the old fortress, is the island of Vido, commanding the town and harbour, and strongly fortified by well constructed redoubts, mounted with heavy cannon, erected by the French during the time they were in possession of these islands.

Between this island, (Scoglio di Vido, as it is usually called,) and the town, there is good anchorage for the largest ships. Towards the land side are chains of outworks and forts extending from the city to the lake Chalichiopolo. In addition to, and beyond these, the French constructed strong lines, defended by bastions and redoubts at intervals, with a deep wet ditch extending from the suburb of Castrades almost across the isthmus. In the construction of this defence, they lost five hundred men from sickness. Upon the whole, if the works were properly repaired and garrisoned, Corfù might be considered impregnable, should it ever become necessary to render it so.

The town is, in proportion to its size, one of the meanest in construction of any in the Mediterranean. The streets are miserably dirty, narrow lanes, which, upon the occupation of the place by the British, were nearly impassable from the offal of butchers' stalls, and litter of the venders of vegetables, who had been allowed to establish themselves promiscuously throughout the town. There are but two streets which might be considered habitable, (besides that which fronts the esplanade,) by a person used to the comfort and cleanliness of a well regulated European town. These are parallel with the two centre main streets, one at each side, and in one is the church of St. Speridion. The houses are built in the Venetian manner, the lowermost story supporting the rest upon pilasters con-

nected by arches, which form a sort of piazza at each side, nearly through the whole of the principal streets. This method of building is well suited to a hot and rainy climate, as it affords shelter from both sun and rain. The only part of the town of Corfù worthy of description or notice is the esplanade. This is, while any vegetation remains, a delightful green, which extends between the town and the ditch that separates the fortress from it. A good gravel walk with a double row of trees at each side, unites the fortress to the town, and it has been lately carried round the whole of the green, with a double row of trees planted at each side. This affords a great source of recreation to the inhabitants of the town and garrison; and the addition of the trees is a very great improvement as well as ornament, notwithstanding the absurd notions entertained by some, that the place is rendered thereby more unhealthy; where the ventilation being preserved free, it is impossible that such effect should take place in so wide and open a space. At the north-east extremity of the esplanade an irregular angle has been cut off, and judiciously selected for the scite of the new palace. This angle, so appropriated, hardly takes any thing from the length of the green, and serves to give it uniformity, besides throwing in the beautiful front of the palace itself. Thus the palace of St. Michael and St. George occupies one side of the esplanade, along which its front extends, built of Malta stone and ornamented with a colonade of fluted

Doric. The line of uniformly built houses upon the west side, with their arches and pilasters, when finished will form a fine combination with the front of the Palace.' The whole will be nearly a parallelogram, two sides of which are built and the other two open, surrounded by an excellent gravel walk inclosing the little park in the centre. This improvement has been all done since the arrival of the British, and it would be difficult for a person who had been absent from Corfù for some years to recognize the place.

The theatre was originally intended for an exchange; the body of the building is ill-proportioned, being too narrow for its length, in consequence of which, the oval where the boxes range is too oblong, and one box obstructs the view of another. The boxes are completely separated from each other by partitions, which, at the sides, instead of forming an angle with, are parallel to the front of the stage, so that but two people can conveniently see the stage from each box. The house is as badly lighted as it is designed, but the interior, for so inconsiderable a place, is pretty enough. The orchestra is well filled and the opera company very tolerable, being made up of second and third rate performers from Rome and Naples. There is also a very good ballet. The management of the theatre is in the hands of government. The chief person employed is called the impressario, and has a fixed salary. The boxes are let out for the season; the medium

price is about twenty-four dollars for a box that will accommodate four persons. Greek plays are sometimes performed, and I have seen some excellent Italian comedy at Corfù. The tragedy of Othello was exhibited in Italian, but in that costume it became a truly farcical business. The incident of the handkerchief was altogether omitted, and the necessity of destroying Desdemona was fortunately superseded by Othello's discovering the villainy of Iago before he came to so unpolite a determination. This false taste however is altogether Venetian, although the foundation of Shakspeare's sublime tragedy, of which this play purported to be a translation, is in a Venetian story.

The advantages arising to this people from their connection with England is no where better shewn than in the present regulations of the police. Assassination is now no more heard of. The removal of the butchers' and vegetable stalls, with the fishmongers, to regular markets constructed outside the walls, has added to the comforts of the inhabitants in point of cleanliness, and certainly contributed mainly to the increased salubrity of the place. The widening of part of the principal street, by pulling down several old tottering Venetian balconies, has removed a source of danger, and has also added to the healthfulness of the place, by admitting a more free ventilation. Notwithstanding all this, much remains to be done; and in fact, nothing but the demolition of the whole town in

rear of the houses on the esplanade, and building it upon a new plan, can ever render it clean or comfortable.

The senate house is a plain square building, where the courts of law are held. Neither this nor the many churches contained in the town require enumeration, much less description. St. Speridion's church is the best; its riches consist in the relics of the saint and the shrine in which they are deposited, which is richly ornamented with precious stones. The interior of this church is decorated with chandeliers, lamps, and candlesticks of solid gold and silver, the fashion and size being according to the taste or devotion of the offerer. So great is the accumulation of wealth from the contributions of rich devotees, that it has been found necessary to place a sentry upon this church.

The following extracts are taken from St. Sauveur relating to the religious ceremonies at Corfù. They have been translated from that author with very little addition or alteration.

The Greek church at Corfù has for its head a protopapa, (archpriest,) elected in an assembly of the clergy and noblesse. The election is made by ballot, and the votes are concealed; a wise precaution this in a country where vengeance is authorized by impunity. The new protopapa is decorated with his robes in the hall of assembly,

and conducted home amidst the ringing of bells and the firing of pateraroes. A feast is prepared at his house for the occasion, which is devoured by the priests and noblesse with the most disgusting voracity. The protopapa of Corfù is distinguished from that of the other islands by the title of grand protopapa, and his authority is equal to that of a bishop. The office lasts five years, at the expiration of which period he returns into the number of ordinary priests or papas. The cathedral has its canons as the Latin church, but they have no fixed prebends; the honour of being at the head of their church is the only advantage they derive from their canonry. They are distinguished by a violet-coloured girdle. Marriages, baptisms, and funerals procure them some windfalls. The expenses of these ceremonies are generally, eleven livres to the protopapa, and three to each canon, with a wax candle of a pound weight. One of the most lucrative articles, and, at the same time one of the most powerful means of retaining the people in their stupid credulity, are excommunications. For the smallest sum a Greek may excommunicate his neighbour. The latter has it also in his power to retaliate by another excommunication, which renders null that of his adversary. The same priest performs both parts with equal zeal. These thunderbolts of the Greek church cost the weak wretches, who have recourse to them, dearly. The ceremony is performed in public in the street, and opposite the house of him who is to be excommunicated. The

success is sure, when one has the means of feeing the protopapa himself, who comes at the head of his clergy to pronounce the anathema. He proceeds to the house of the individual in a habit of mourning, a black wax candle in his hand, preceded by a large crucifix and a black banner, his suite all clothed in lugubrious stile. The imprecations are accompanied with violent gestures. From that moment the person excommunicated is excluded from every church, and deprived of the prayers of the faithful. He cannot be restored to his rights except by a counter excommunication. If he have not the means of paying the expense, it often happens that he is driven to the last excess, and revenges himself upon his adversary by assassinating him.

The number of churches is very considerable. The officiating priest is chosen annually by the parishioners; they have no fixed stipend. In the country most of the churches have been built by individuals, who, as proprietors, nominate the papas. The property of the church of St. Speridion is vested in a private family; they appoint the officiating papa, who is always one of the family, and who has the right of inspecting into its revenues. The festival of St. Speridion is celebrated with great pomp. Eight days previously, the doors, windows, and steeple of the church are ornamented with festoons of laurel and myrtle. On the eve of the festival, the shrine which contains the body of the saint, whole

and well preserved, is exposed to the veneration of the people. The shrine is ebony embossed with silver gilt, and enriched with precious stones. The fore part is shut up by a large glass. The saint is upright, dressed in his pontifical robes; over the shrine is supported a beautiful silk canopy. The head of the government attends the procession, with the military staff, and a large proportion of the garrison under arms; a military band goes before. It first moves towards the citadel, where a royal salute is fired from each battery. They then make the round of the esplanade, and proceed along the wall at the harbour side, where a salute is fired by each ship of war decorated with her flags. In the streets through which the procession moves, the houses are all ornamented with their drapery, suspended from the windows. The ceremony is often interrupted by the sick who are brought out upon this occasion, to be placed under the shrine, in the full confidence of a cure. It often happens that amongst those, some are seized with frightful convulsions, which the papas know well how to turn to their account. In all public calamities the relics of the saint are exposed with the most religious confidence*. This church enjoys the

* In the month of December 1815, there was a festival in the church of St. Speridion, which was numerously attended by persons from all parts of the island; some of whom from the district of Leftimo returning home, died of the plague, which had at that time made its appearance in the island. This very circumstance exalted still higher St. Speridion in the estimation of the towns-

revenues of some lands which pious individuals have bestowed for its support. The devotion of the insulars affords a very considerable produce. The mariner and the artizan believe that they ensure the success of their speculations in sacrificing a part to St. Speridion. No boat leaves the port in which the saint has not an interest in the profits of the voyage.

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people, who failed not to attribute to his powerful interposition, their escape from this dreadful malady; as it was suspected, and not without reason, that some of those persons from Leftimo were, whilst in town, actually infected with the contagion.

CHAPTER IV.

LEUCADIA.

Mox et Leucatæ nimbosa cacumina montis
Et formidatus nautis aperitur Apollo,
Hunc petimus fessi et parvæ succedimus urbi.

VIRGIL, *Æneid*, Book 3.

Leucadia formerly a peninsula—Ranges of mountains, their composition—Figure of the Island—Curious configuration at Sappho's Leap—The isthmus, newly formed—An extraordinary ledge of rock, its formation progressive—The castle and aqueduct of Bajazet—The lake, Strabo's silence upon the subject accounted for—The fine olive wood behind the town, and beautiful scenery.

THE Island of Santa Maura, or more properly Leucadia, as it is still universally styled by the peasantry, lies in latitude thirty-eight degrees, thirty minutes north, and in twenty-one degrees eastern longitude. Its length from north to south is about thirty miles, and its mean breadth from

ACARNANIA
MEGANISI
I. Scorpio
Borgo
Ft Tecma
Fort S. Giorgio
S. Nicolò
Flacca, or nearly formed Rock
Castle
F. Const
Canale
Amaxithi
ISTHMUS
Ipetpetta
Frini
Remains of ancient Mole
Zuccalades
Xithia Lake
S. Nicholò
Scale of Venetian Passi.
1000 2000 3000 4000
ISLAND
of
SANTA MAURA.
Campo di Cattena
Fontana
Bay
Pico
Cattena
Carrodes
Rhazandra
Castropiteo
Perrò
Nemeri
Flerno
Vafcheri
Platisthano
Metrò
Vurmo
Mt. Elias
Convento
Condarino
Englouvi
Sparteo
Ruins
Port of Varvitchi
Dulichio
Cefalonia
Ormighio
Turmolo
Pt. Agrilo
Convent of S. Nicolò
Dragone
Athani
Cape Ducat
Stephano Logo
LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

east to west twelve. It is situated, to the north of Ithaca and Cephalonia, and to the westward of that part of Old Greece called Acarnania, from which it is separated by a narrow channel, in some places not exceeding one hundred yards in breadth, and sufficiently shallow to be fordable. We are told by the ancient writers, that it was formerly joined to the main land by an isthmus, which was cut through by the Corinthians. The appearance of the coast at each side the channel seems to sanction the tradition; as, either shore, if extended, would unite with the opposite, so as to produce a perfect curve, which is now only broken by the intervention of the canal.

The island consists of a mass of mountains, the primary ridge running nearly north and south, in the direction of the Cassiopæan range, which is a secondary to the great chain of Pindus upon the continent. The basis is secondary limestone. This ridge terminates in a bold promontory at the southern end of the island, called Capo Ducato, near which is a singularly romantic precipice, long celebrated as being the scene of the fate of the unfortunate Sappho. The cliffs here are of a splendid whiteness, from which the ancient name Leucadia is said to have been derived. Secondary ridges traverse the island in a direction generally towards the southward and eastward: they are composed of crystallized, compact, fibrous, and earthy carbonate of lime, and of gypsum; the lime always predo-

minating. The second species of rock occurs frequently in beautiful stratifications, immense tables being piled, horizontally in general, and some with various degrees of obliquity in the dip. They are of greater or less degrees of hardness, probably according to the quantity of carbonate of lime which enters into the composition, and are of various thickness. Some, from their durability and regularity of form, make excellent stones for building. The secondary ridges diverge from the primary, or great ridge, at the centre of the island. The principal of these is a mountain called el Vouno, which is again subdivided into parallel ridges running above the village of Catechori and Porto Englimenò. In a ravine which descends from the north-east of Catechori to the southern extremity of the port Englimenò, the rock exhibits a very singular appearance: one would imagine that the south-east side had been formed, by a mass which had fallen from the mountain at the opposite side of the ravine; the strata having their edges turned up, and projecting one beyond the other in a series, like a half fallen pack of cards. To the mineralogist the stratification of rock is here very interesting. The greasiness of the stone renders the roads extremely slippery and dangerous. The rock which generally covers the surface is of a very rough appearance, being perforated in every direction by round holes, a form which it assumes, probably, from the action of water, by which it had been covered at its first formation. Stalactites and calcareous spars are found in the

crevices, deep below the surface, and in the vaults both artificial and natural.

The figure of the island is somewhat triangular; the north-west coast, which forms the base line, runs straight and perpendicular, raising the land to a considerably height above the level of the sea; from this the surface inclines irregularly towards the eastern coast, giving the whole nearly an eastern aspect. A part, however, considerable in population and productiveness, although of small extent, owing to its narrowness, enjoys a fine western aspect.

This is formed by the ridge line of the north-west face being, as it were, bevelled off, and giving a strip of land, of about twenty miles in length, a gentle slope towards the north-west. Along this tract are many populous villages and much cultivated ground. It is, from its great height, and free exposure to the northerly and westerly winds, the healthiest part of the island during the summer months. The north-west coast is, as above said, nearly throughout perpendicular, containing no single harbour nor road, and opposing a mass of pure limestone to the great swell which is rolled in by the northerly and westerly winds towards the bottom of the gulph of Prevesa. It would appear, that the constant action of this great body of water has reduced the island, at this side, to its present form; and that the detritus, or loosened matter, swept along the coast by

the southerly and westerly winds, and carried round the north-eastern point of the island, has been deposited in a long line which is the present isthmus, to be hereafter described. This will account for the otherwise irreconcileable variance of the descriptions of ancient writers with the present appearance of this part of the island; and will further explain the cause of the changes which have taken place, within the memory even of the present inhabitants.

The south-west end is narrow, for above ten miles, which gives the whole island a disproportionate length. The hills at the extremity, towards Capo Ducato, are disposed in a very singular manner; they consist of a regular series of cones, laid together in a right line, and diminishing gradually in size to the cape; they are cut upon the north-west faces, by a plane which is parallel with their axes, and continuous with the north-west coast of the island.

The faces shewn by these sections are of a beautiful whiteness, one of them constitutes Sappho's Leap. Their convex surfaces are turned to the southward in beautiful swells, which are covered with evergreen shrubs down to the water edge. Their figure is so nearly mathematical, that the south-east coast is here indented with regular spherical angles. From the sea, this singular conformation is not so evident, but it is very striking when viewed from the tops of the cones, upon returning from the Leap. The

change in the point of sight, readily accounts for this; as in the former instance, the curves and angles are viewed, the eye being in the same plane with them; whereas, in the latter case, the spectator is placed almost perpendicularly above them.

The next remarkable feature in the topography of the island, is, the new isthmus, the formation of which is so singular as to merit a minute description. From the north-east angle of the island a narrow strip of land, of about four miles in length, and of a very irregular waving line, extends across the mouth of the channel towards the coast of Acarnania, which it reaches within 100 yards; it then runs parallel with that coast for about half a mile, eking out the channel an equal length. From near its extreme point, at a small angle, it sends off a ledge of rocks towards the north, which is of very singular appearance and composition. When seen at even a short distance, it bears a perfect resemblance to a mole running out into the sea, and it is by many believed to have been a work of the Romans. The ledge is about half a mile in length, and from twenty to thirty feet wide, with deep water at each side. Its breadth and direction are nearly uniform throughout, which gives it so much the appearance of a work of art. The rock of which it is composed consists of gravel and sand, accumulated there by the water, and formed, according to the size of the particles so brought together, into sand stone or pudding stone. The substance which unites them is become as hard

as the particles themselves; for upon breaking the mass with a hammer, the fracture goes through them equally with the interstitial matter. The whole forms an exceedingly hard stone, capable of taking a certain degree of polish. It is used for building, as also for making stones for flour mills and oil presses. The isthmus seems to have been formed upon this rock as a basis; the latter is found along its whole line under the loose gravel, at the sea water edge, and appears to be rapidly advancing. In October 1818 the men employed in raising stones out of the sea, for the construction of the new mole, took up the splinter of a shell which was covered with an incrustation of Breccia above three inches thick. The iron of the shell was oxidizing, and the red oxide gradually incorporated with the stone as it formed. The splinter had lain there probably since the siege in 1810.

This process seems to be effected by a deposition of the calcareous matter, which had been washed away from the mountains, and held suspended or dissolved in the water. Masses of the rock are found in a state of decomposition, from the disintegration of the connecting medium, which appears to be pure carbonate of lime. A shelf of gravel, which had been left by the water, and was for several days exposed to a strong sun, was observed to feel crisp upon the surface; a white matter being deposited amongst the particles, which dissolved upon the tongue, giving the flavour of common salt.

Here the formation of the stone was probably detected in its very infancy; and the connecting matter may be always in the first instance muriate of soda, and carbonate of lime. Specimens are to be seen where the larger particles of gravel are united by minute intermediate particles of sand, themselves cohering by means of this matter. The pure common salt is found crystallized, in all the little cavities in the rock along the beach, where the sea-water had been left after a high wind or tide, and was afterwards evaporated. This becomes enveloped by the stone as it forms, and hence may be accounted for the deposits of sea salt found in the heart of stone of this species. All the masses of rock formed in this way, and more particularly the remarkable ledge above described, have an inclination to the horizon; forming an angle to the surface of the sea, the same as that of the beach in general.

The isthmus, at its root, where it springs from the island, is of considerable width, and a sufficient quantity of soil has accumulated to admit of the production of corn and potatoes. As it approaches the continent to within about a mile, it expands into a little peninsula, upon which the castle of Santa Maura is built, having thus command of the whole channel to the south. Upon the peninsula a green sod is forming, which is gradually become so rich, from the animal and vegetable matter carried out of the fortress, as to afford pasture for a few head of cattle. Upon this spot the inconsiderable

little town of Santa Maura stood less than 100 years ago. It is connected with the modern town by means of a bridge of curious construction, being only two feet and a half wide, and nearly one mile in length. This is said to have been built by Bajazet, for the purpose of conveying water to the fortress; it serves now as a foot-path to communicate with the town over the lake. The earthen pipes which conveyed the water along this aqueduct still remain.

The salt water lake, which forms another important feature in the topography of the island, is merely an expansion of the canal between Santa Maura and the continent. The existence of this lake is not mentioned by Strabo, unless it be his Myrtuntian lake, nor that of the isthmus above described; the latter being at three miles distance from the isthmus to which he alludes, as having been divided by the Corinthians, and which he places at the site of the old city.

That the space intervening between this island and Acarnania must have undergone important changes, is evident from the continual enlargement of the isthmus; and, if the latter did not actually exist in the time of Strabo, the constant accretion of matter, proceeding as it does at present, will fully account for its appearance at the distance of nearly two thousand years. By the formation of the isthmus, the lake was thus cut off from the outer body of water, and reconciles us to Strabo's

account, which will be found hereafter so circumstantially correct in every other respect*. The lake at present occupies a space, of three miles in length, and one and a half in breadth, at a mean; it is nearly of a triangular figure, the base being formed by the new isthmus, as above described, and the two sides, by portions of the eastern coast of the island, and the western coast of Acarnania, which gradually approximate to form the apex towards the south. Its depth does not exceed two feet and a half, and in general it is not more than twelve inches. The exhalations from the margin in the hot weather, are, as may have been well anticipated, extremely noxious.

Although mountainous and uncultivated in its general appearance, much beautiful and picturesque scenery will be found in Santa Maura. In rear of

* That the isthmus, (i. e. the place now called so,) has been formed altogether since the cut made by the Corinthians, must be apparent from this consideration, that, otherwise, the latter would have been, as it is at the present day, useless for the purposes of navigation, at least that the transit of vessels between the island of Leucadia and the continent would not have been practicable: that a new colony, sprung from such an enterprising and commercial people as the Corinthians, should have undertaken a work of such labour and expense, for any object short of admitting the free and full passage of the isthmus, is not very probable. Indeed, there is direct evidence as to the fact of its being navigable: Thucydides relates, (book 4. c. 1.) that in the Peloponnesian war, the Lacedemonians, proceeding to the relief of Pylos, carried their fleet of sixty sail through the passage, in order that they might not be observed by the Athenian fleet which lay at Zante.

the city is a fine plain, extending about two miles in length and one in breadth. It consists of a rich alluvial soil, which is highly susceptible of cultivation, but has been appropriated almost solely to the production of the olive, of which a magnificent wood covers almost the whole. Near the town, and towards the water, a small part of it is laid out in vineyards and fruit-gardens, with a few fields of corn, all of which are extremely productive. A great quantity of vegetables are grown here, with which the market is well supplied, as well as with abundance of fruit. The whole of the part under gardens is at all times irrigable from a large and constant spring, whence the water is drawn in rills, made at pleasure, over any part of the plain which is below its level. The wood is intersected by two or three good roads, which, from their straightness, the dark shade thrown upon them by the tall olives, and the green level of the plain, remind one of the fine avenues of our English country seats. The whole of the plain, with the wood, the gardens, and the town, is shut in by a fine sweep of mountain, forming a delightful landscape; the beauty of the view is, however, greatly enhanced by changing the point of sight, as the mountain is ascended, and from the heights a lovely picture is indeed exhibited to a contemplative mind: the waving foliage of the wood is now only seen, stretched at the spectator's feet like a carpet, smooth and unbroken from the mountain base to the lake; where, in that beautiful mirror, a second

scene of stillness and repose steals upon the eye, until the grand and picturesque scenery of the gulph of Arta, including the promontory of Actium, calls up a train of new ideas. Possibly the events of past ages now occupy the mind in succession, and the ideas of distance in time and space gradually enlarging together, our attention becomes at last fixed upon the blue mass of Pindus in the remote distance, beyond which the ideas of eternity and infinity of space seem, as it were, to blend together.

CHAPTER V.

Temperature and variation of season—Winds—Earthquakes—Productions of the Island—Wine—Oil—making of Salt—curious mode of fishing in the shallow waters—Waterfowl that visit the lake at certain seasons—wild Ducks—Pelicans—singular mode of living of the Inhabitants—Emigration—effects of their habits upon their constitution, producing fever.

LIKE all other places in these latitudes, and in the vicinity of high mountains, the temperature is here changeable. The heat in summer varies from eighty to ninety degrees of Fahrenheit, and in the winter from forty to sixty degrees. The thermometer has risen much higher than the former point, which is however the maximum for most years, and sometimes it has fallen below the freezing point. The salt water lake above described, has been more than once frozen over, since the possession of the island by the British. The thermometer has been frequently known to alter twenty degrees in twenty-four hours. The predominating winds are the northerly and westerly. The southerly or sirocco very often prevails for three days together. In the autumn and winter, particularly the latter, it fre-

quently blows from the east. This wind is excessively sultry and unhealthy at the former season. In the winter it produces those sudden and remarkable depressions of the thermometer, already noticed, from its passing over the chain of Pindus, which at that season is mostly covered with snow; the rapid elevations of heat are caused by the sirocco winds; an effect which is universally felt throughout the Mediterranean. The greatest variations happen late in spring, if the mountains be covered with snow at that time, when these two causes acting successively, co-operate to produce this extraordinary change in the atmospherical temperature. In the gulph of Prevesa, and the channel, during the summer months, the winds are observed to move very regularly and periodically, following the sun in his apparent diurnal revolutions; the light morning breezes usually come in from the eastward and southward; towards noon a strong westerly or north-west wind springs up, blows steadily during the day, and declines rapidly at sun set. The phenomenon is readily explained by the influence of the solar heat, the rarefaction of the air where it operates, causing the colder currents, whose specific gravity is greater, to rush in, in order to restore the equilibrium. This is obvious enough, and it only appears difficult to conceive how it should be otherwise, either here or in any other part of the world where the same cause exists; the variation of the wind is, however, influenced by many other agents, which counteract the general tendency even

here, although from the long continued fair weather during summer, these winds being generated by the sun, the diurnal changes become very remarkable. A singular modification of this effect has been noticed in the Santa Maura channel, the southerly or sirocco blowing through the southern entrance, while a brisk north-wester prevailed at the opposite extremity of the channel; shewing how much these laws are influenced by local circumstances*.

Earthquakes are here very frequent, several shocks occurring sometimes in the course of a month; they are of short duration however, and are not attended with much damage. They are generally unconnected with the same phenomena in other places, but in the year 1783 this island partook in the general calamity which desolated the kingdom of the two Sicilies, and all the neighbouring parts in the Mediterranean.

The whole island, nearly, being a mass of mountains, but little corn is produced, scarcely sufficient to support one third of the population. The chief

* This phenomenon may be explained in the following way: the westerly wind blows directly across both mouths of the channel, and meeting the high mountains of the continent, is led into the channel at each end, as it were through a funnel, this effect being further facilitated by the perpendicular face of the west side of the island, which completely arrests the wind in its progress towards the channel, and which must therefore eddy round the north and south points.

articles of produce are, oil and wine; the cultivation is consequently directed, principally, to the growth of the vine and olive. The wine of the country is harsh, and strongly impregnated with turpentine, which renders it much inferior to that of the neighbouring islands; a ready market, however, is found for it at Provesa, when the vizier makes his annual visit to collect his imposts in this quarter: upon these occasions he is attended by a large army.

The oil is tolerably good, and the olive crops very productive indeed. The next article of importance in the produce of the island, is, salt. The extensive shallow water in the vicinity of the low grounds, affords great facility of procuring it, by the simple process of evaporation in the heat of the sun. For this operation the water is exposed in wide pans, which are readily constructed in the soft clay. Although one should conjecture, a priori, that this was an occupation, extremely detrimental to health, it is considered to be much otherwise by the inhabitants, who state, that the people employed therein, are as healthy and as long lived, as an equal portion of any other class. Five hundred men are employed during the salt harvests, (raccólta, as they are termed,) of which they sometimes have three in the year, when the weather is dry, and otherwise favourable. Another mode of procuring subsistence, and which yields a large produce, is by fishing in the lake.

These two occupations, the making of salt, and

fishing, constitute a considerable portion of the revenue of the island. The mode of fishing is singular, the water being not more than two feet and a half deep, and in general only twelve inches, as above described, the fish are inclosed in large spaces, by means of moveable wickers chiefly made of canes, which are fixed upright in the soft bottom of the lake. These spaces are contracted at pleasure, and the fish, thus preserved, are taken to answer the demand of the market. They make use of a small canoe upon the lake, which draws but a few inches water, hollowed out, as the name imports, of one piece of wood; it is called Monoxylon. A sudden fall of the water in the autumn of 1817, caused a great loss to the proprietors, by destroying the whole of the fish, a just punishment inflicted upon them for their spirit of forestalling. A curious fact is, that the fish have also perished in the winter season, from the lake having been frozen over.

They take chiefly mullet, soles, eels, and a great abundance of shrimps. Crabs and cockles are also found in great plenty, but of an inferior kind. Amongst the productions of the lake may be enumerated wild ducks, with which it abounds, and water fowl of almost every species, in the winter. A great number of pelicans frequent it at the same season, being driven by the cold from the lakes upon the continent; and eagles are often seen prowling about the margin. Of birds of the migratory tribe, the woodcocks take refuge in the island in the cold

weather, when large flights of them bury themselves in the thick cover of the mountains, and afford excellent sport to those who are fond of shooting. The quail is another of this species, which takes up a temporary residence in the low grounds. They come in in large flocks about the latter end of August and beginning of September. They occasionally pay a visit to these islands also in the spring, viz. about the middle of March. Partridges and hares are amongst the game to be found in the mountains, the former are of the red-legged species: a small wild pigeon, the dove, is also amongst the inhabitants of the mountain woods.

The island is still more deficient in pasture than in arable land, the whole of their beef and mutton is supplied from Albania.

A considerable portion of the year is devoted to feasting and idleness, which is encouraged and kept up by the preposterous number of saints which they have crowded into their kalendar. It has been calculated, that there are upwards of two hundred days, for which religious duties furnish an exclusive privilege of exemption from all other avocations. The occurrence of a grand festival, is sufficient to suspend the most necessary labour; the vintage, the gathering of salt or olive is immediately abandoned upon these occasions, although impending destruction threaten the whole produce of the year, in the expected fall of a single nights' rain. Yet where they

are not shackled by their attachment to religious ceremonies, which thus go hand in hand with their amusements, they are capable of making great exertions, and undergo much fatigue. In the intervals of the periodical labours of the year, viz. between the gathering of the grapes, the olives, and the salt, and of dressing and cultivating their vines, and managing their corn, &c. numbers of the peasantry emigrate to Albania; they there find employment at two periods, viz. the sowing season and the harvest. They are paid for their labour in kind, and in this way, much of the deficit in the supply of corn is made up, here and in the other islands. About six hundred people annually forsake their homes to seek a livelihood in this way. They are chiefly of the villages upon the south-east coast, and principally from Catechori. A curious circumstance is, that these emigrants adopt, in a great measure, some altogether, the manners and customs, with the language and dress of their Albanese hosts, and introduce them into their villages. A quarantine, generally of fifteen days, being in force against the opposite coast, these poor wretches are often induced to break the health laws, the temptation of avoiding so great loss of time and inconvenience being sufficiently strong for the wily Greek to put his tricks in practice. A considerable risk would thus be incurred to the health of the island, but that the activity and vigilance of the ruler of Albania in his own dominions, generally renders the laws of quarantine here a dead letter. For this latter reason, it

is, that, the plague has not visited this island for fifty years.

The manner of living of the Greeks is of all others the worst calculated for the preservation of health; the whole year round consisting in alternations of feasting and fasting. These sudden changes from a very high and full, to a very low and sparing diet, render them exceedingly obnoxious to fevers and other acute diseases. The physicians are always busy after the commencement of a festival; and the fever excited by this gross indulgence of the appetite, they aptly enough term febris gastrica*, (stomach fever.) The lents are no less prejudical, and especially the autumnal, to the health of the inhabitants of the town. In the autumn of 1817, above one hundred people fell sick in the course of one week after the commencement of this fast. The vicissitudes of weather in spring, combined with these irregularities in diet, added to the lowness and dampness of the situation, render the inhabitants of the town extremely subject to pneumonia. The practice of the faculty upon these occasions is to bleed from a small orifice, when a quantity of blood, not exceeding four ounces is taken, and this operation is repeated five or six times in the twenty-four hours. Bark, from their experiencing its utility in the endemie fever, they conclude to be useful at all times; I have seen it given, upon this principle, in

* The following remarks although made mostly during a residence of two years in this island, are generally applicable to the other islands, and particularly to where the marsh effluvia exists.

the primary stages of this and other inflammatory disorders, when the bowels had been shut up for four days, and no effort made to relieve them; indeed the matter was never once taken into consideration. The most prevailing disease is fever, generally speaking, which assumes every type, varying according to the season. In the winter and spring it is intermittent, in the early part of summer it becomes continued, and is often at this season accompanied by inflammations of the head, chest, stomach, or bowels; in the latter part of the summer and autumn it prevails in the remittent form. The bilious remittent fever is the most dangerous disease of the country; it is sometimes so rapid in its progress as to prove fatal in three days; its usual period, however, is seven days. Its prevalence amongst the British, compared with people* whose constitutions and habits of life are nearly similar to those of the people of the country, is as three to two; and its mortality in respect of the former compared with the latter, as three to one. This will be shewn hereafter, having been proved from calculations made, where the individuals of the different countries were placed under the same circumstances in every respect.

* The proportions were calculated from the returns of sick of the British forces quartered here: the latter consisted of the Corsican regiment, which was chiefly made up of Corsicans and Italians, whose diet and habits of life vary but little from the Greeks, and of British soldiers. *Vide* APPENDIX, A.

CHAPTER VI.

Population of the island—Chief town, Amaxichi, or Santa Maura—Excursion to Sappho's Leap—Villages Frini, Zuculades, Calamici, Xathia, Diamigliano, Comiglio, Athani—The cape and white cliffs—Convent of St. Nicolò—Ruins of the temple of Apollo—Sappho's Leap—Beautiful vale of Vassilichi—Ruins, ancient tumulus, supposed to be the sepulchre of a queen—Villages, St. Pietro, Sparteà, Sicvro, St. Ellia, Marandecori, Condarena, Porrò, Fternò, Port Ellomenos and ruins of the ancient city.—Catechori, Engluvi, singular situation of,—Extraordinary plain near the convent of St. John, in the mountains, subject to an annual inundation—Carià, Sphachiotes.—Second excursion to Meganisi Fountain of the Pacha, island of Meganisi, geological structure, population and productions; probability that it is the ancient Taphos of Homer.

THE present population of Santa Maura amounts to about seventeen thousand inhabitants, upwards of five thousand of which are contained in the city. The latter, named Amaxichi, is situated upon the edge of the lake, and is deservedly reckoned one of the most unhealthy places in the Ionian islands;

that part of it which adjoins the olive wood is considered, by the inhabitants, to be still more sickly than the parts adjacent to the lake; both the wood and lake are fruitful sources of disease, the marks of which many of the inhabitants bear in their sallow countenances and emaciated condition. The houses are mostly constructed of wood, which affords bad security against the weather, either in summer or winter. The situation of the town is beautiful, although the health of the inhabitants is compromised for this, together with other trifling advantages accruing to the inconsiderable commerce which they carry on. One long street runs up through the centre of the town, of tolerable width, and, generally straight; a church or regular stone house appearing at intervals, with a few fountains and vine alcoves in front of the houses, give it a better appearance upon entering it than one would expect to find from a more distant view. The smaller streets and lanes, with the suburbs, are wretchedly dirty and unwholesome; the fine names with which they are ornamented by a conspicuous board, placed upon the tottering angle generally of some miserable wooden habitation, are no less extravagant and ridiculous. The "Largo del limite della Sanità," as coming within the precincts of the office of health, forsooth! is a filthy yard in the rear of a few cabins, which is constantly flooded over with stagnating water and liquid mud. Another square is called "Largo di

Santa Veneranda." There are the Vicolo Sturto and Vicolo Oscuro, Vicolo del Console, and Vicolo delle Cisterne, with various others. The water, which is plentiful and of excellent quality, is supplied from a large spring, at two miles distance from the town. The quantity of water flowing from this is so great, as to send off three streams almost at its source, each sufficient to turn a mill; this is by no means an uncommon phenomenon in this part of the world. The spring is named Megalovrisi, or the Great Fountain.

To those who are fond of the wild beauties of mountain scenery, an excursion through this romantic island cannot fail to afford much pleasure; it will be found particularly delightful if undertaken in the serene and comparatively cool weather about the close of October; the distance, with the difficulty of the road, render a journey of sixteen hours, nearly, necessary to reach Sappho's leap.

The usual route is along the western side of the island. The first village, Frini, lies near the base of the mountain, which is ascended by an exceedingly rough road; the rain constantly washing away the earth which had been strewed amongst the stones. This little village contains about two hundred people; although at a higher elevation than St. Maura, it is reckoned, even more unhealthy, probably owing to the exhalations from the wood, which touches the base of the village with its top. The

soil is of a highly red colour, from the quantity of red oxide of iron which it contains; in some spots a fine red ochre is observed; its looseness of texture and lightness, causes it to be readily washed off the mountain sides as well as the road, and it becomes deposited in the rich plain below. The fine view which was described in Chapter IV. opens in the ascent to the convent, which is situated upon the brow of the hill. Here are three or four priests; there are accommodations for travellers, furnished out of the church revenues, as they are in most of the convents throughout the islands. This spot is reckoned extremely healthy, the wealthy inhabitants of the town frequently take refuge here during the prevalence of fever; indeed, they look upon the place with a particular degree of veneration, and of course something miraculous lies at the bottom of its salubrity. Pilgrimages are often made, and penance done at the shrine of the saint, who has a specific power it seems for the healing of diseases; his votaries are numerous, and their offerings rich. He delights particularly in enormous wax candles. Near the top of the mountain, at about one hour's ride from town, the village of Zuculades is left upon the right hand, containing nearly two hundred inhabitants. This, and all the villages along this tract, are extremely healthy. The mountain is covered with evergreen shrubs, as the mastic, myrtle, and arbutus, with its beautiful red berry, called κωμαρε by the natives, and fully ripe at this season. A few tall cypress trees and

scattered olives appear in clumps, and patches of green flax now just springing up. From this elevated situation, the whole of Paxù and Corfù are to be seen. At one hour and a half's ride from Santa Maura, the road descends again to the sea. Here is a steep precipice on the right hand side, out of the face of which the venturous pine stretches out its head, the stem and roots being concealed by the thick foliage, which, at this point of sight, occupies the foreground of the picture. The sea appears beyond, rolling at a depth of perhaps a thousand feet below, the waves breaking in a silvery fringe along the beach. This scene is finely heightened by the addition of a strong northerly or westerly breeze, when the successive beats of the distant surges convey an extraordinary emotion; perhaps from the unusual association of the ideas of distance and elevation, being communicated together by a new train of ideas. After half an hour's descent down a steep and dangerous path, the pretty sand beach is gained below, and a pleasant ride extends along the sea-shore for half an hour. Large masses of rock that have fallen from the mountain strew the beach, and give fine effect to the scenery. Calamici, which is next reached, contains about one hundred houses, and five hundred inhabitants. It is divided by a deep ravine into two nearly equal parts, each forming a distinct village, but considered as one. It is distant from Santa Maura about four hours' journey by this route. The village upon the west covers a point

of the mountain which is completely insulated from the rest of the mass by a deep ravine. To the eastward may be seen another little Alpine village, called Xathìa, occupying a singular position, upon the loftiest of the mountain ridges. It contains also about five hundred people. At about one hour and a half's ride from Calamici, the mountain called Diamigliano is left upon the eastward. This is a long sharp ridge, appearing to consist of blue limé-stone. The village Diamigliano hangs upon its brow, containing four hundred and fifty inhabitants and one hundred and ten houses. At ten minutes' distance from Diamigliano is the village of Comigliò, situated upon a little plain yielding corn and pasture. It contains two hundred and forty people. About one hour's ride from Comigliò, is Dragonò, with a pretty open to the sea at each side, containing sixty houses and three hundred and forty people. It is situated in a long valley, which, though stony, yields much corn. Athàni is distant from the last village forty minutes' ride; it contains eight hundred inhabitants and about eighty-five houses, which are scattered upon a very steep side of the mountain, facing westwards to the sea. This is a very healthy village, but is said by the inhabitants to suffer much from earthquakes, in common with all the villages along this coast. The older inhabitants stated, in the autumn of 1818, that, thirty-five years before that period, nearly the whole of the houses were destroyed, and eighteen or twenty people buried in the ruins by an

earthquake. The shock is said to have been felt severely along the whole of this coast. This corresponds with the time of the great concussion in 1783. Leaving Athàni, at a quarter of an hour's ride, is a lofty precipice, along the edge of which the road runs. It is however tolerably good from Athàni, for one half of the way to the leap. The scenery is beautiful. The road at each side is thickly set with myrtle, box, the ilex and other shrubs, which grow here considerably taller than upon the higher grounds; on every side, the odour exhaled from these, together with the sage, camomile, wild thime, and an infinity of others, blend together and form a delicious perfume. Approaching the cape, called "to Cabo" by the natives, the hills become more rounded off at the top, and more thickly covered with brushwood. The road is now exceedingly difficult, the soil and the rocks are highly reddened with oxid of iron. At one hour and three-quarters ride from Athàni, the round top of a mountain is crossed over, from which is a beautiful prospect indeed. The cape with the leap and white cliffs appear in front, at the extremity of a long but gentle descent; a little to the eastward, the whole island nearly of Cephalonia is to be seen, the bay of Fiscardi on the northern coast first presenting itself, the northern extremity of Ithaca is next observed, with the channel between it and Cephalonia; upon its left the little rocky island of Ataco, and still more eastward, the magnificent mountains of old Greece, hiding their hoary tops in the clouds.

From this point the road descends, becoming exceedingly rough and dangerous from the loose round stones.

The convent appears to the left, with a little cultivated plain in its front, grown with corn and flax. It is dedicated to St. Nicolò, and is at two hours and a half's distance from Athàni, being the only habitation on the island at this side of the latter town. Forty minutes' ride from the convent, through a very thick strong brushwood, without a path, leads to the ruins of the temple of Apollo. Four large square blocks of tufa are first met with, which have lately been uncovered; there are two others in front at a little distance, and the fragments of others, scattered along the back of the precipice. From the line of these stones, to the edge of the precipice with which it is parallel, the space is very contracted indeed, consequently the temple must have been of very narrow dimensions. A little beyond this ruin, the spot is pointed out where Sappho, having sung her funeral dirge, precipitated herself with her harp into the waves; the precipice, which is fearfully dizzy, is about one hundred and fourteen feet from the water, which is of a profound depth, as appears from the dark blue colour, and the eddy that plays round the pointed and projecting rocks; the face of the cliff falls in from the perpendicular, so that the top projects over the water, and cannot be safely looked down without lying prone near the edge; this is an experiment that many are unwilling to try. It is

said that some feet below the verge of the precipice there are several Greek letters inscribed upon the face of the rock; there are only two possible means of ascertaining this interesting fact, viz. by descending upon the security of a rope, or by examining it with a good telescope from the sea; the former method might be deemed rather hazardous, and difficult, if the letters be large.

Proceeding towards the extreme point of the cape, at about two or three hundred paces' distance, is a yet larger mass of ruin; the site is better adapted for a temple, but it is still very limited in space. There most probably stood the celebrated temple of Apollo, of which the first ruin may have formed a part, as they consist of the same sort of fine sandstone, none of which is to be found in the neighbourhood, or possibly in the island. Partridges and hares frequent these solitudes, and a large sea bird with a beautiful azure plumage, and apparently of the hawk species, inhabits the cliffs: abundance of the scilla maritima grows here; a beautiful white and fragrant lilly too springs up in the path, as if it had delighted to take root in the last footsteps of the hapless victim of love.

The convent affords accommodation, sufficiently good for a few days, if the visitor wishes to remain so long, and probably, excavations made here might amply reward his pains, by the discovery of pieces of sculpture, or of ancient coins or medals.

The distance, from the village of Athàni to the ruin, amounts in the whole to about three hours and a half's journey, on horse back.

To return from Athàni by the eastern coast of the island, the mountain above the village is now to be ascended. It consists of a mass of carbonate of lime; forty minutes' ride leads to the top, from whence is another pretty view of the little village of Diamigliano, hanging upon the blue mountain, which it still encircles like a chaplet. The top of this mountain is finely streaked, apparently by the winter torrents, which have worn channels down the sides. A few hundred paces further from this point the channel of Santa Maura opens, with the little islets at it's entrance; and upon descending a few hundred paces further down towards the village of St. Pietro, a landscape is presented to the view, which, for richness and beauty of scenery, is hardly to be exceeded in any country. This lovely spot is called the plain of Vasilichì, and from the position just now described, the whole scene is taken in at a coup d'œil, being stretched out at the spectator's feet, far below his horizon. The valley is locked in by mountains on every side, excepting a square opening to the sea, through which may be seen the islands of Cephalonia and Ithaca in the distance. The bottom is perfectly level, extending six miles in length, and one and a half in breadth: it is divided in the middle by a rivulet, which taking rise at the foot of the mountain to the north, runs through its whole length to

the sea. The mountains at the sides are nearly parallel, giving it rather an oblong square shape. They are thickly covered with olives, vines, orange and lemon trees, with villages interspersed, and hanging upon their sides. Abundance of evergreen shrubs, as box, myrtle, holly, mastic and arbutus, diversify the colouring, and give exceeding beauty to the landscape. The steepness of the heights all around forms a singular contrast with the uniform smoothness of the plain, which is only broken by the bed of the river, sometimes swollen to a torrent by the rains. In various parts of the plain are to be seen the foundations of buildings, belonging to an ancient city* of considerable extent, as would appear from their distances respectively, as well as from the spaces which they severally occupy; and from their stile and character, once probably of great wealth and prosperity. One of the ruins is upon a large tumulus, most of the others are covered by several feet of soil. The plain produces a great quantity of grain, and is rich in fact in all the productions of the island. The Indian corn however thrives best, on account of the wetness of its bottom, a defect which, to an English farmer, would not long prove irremediable.

Descending the mountain from this point, a mass

* This is probably that to which Virgil alludes in the quotation at the head of the chapter, "Hunc petimus fessi et parvæ Succedimus urbi." It is within a few miles of the ruins of the temple. ["hunc," viz. Apollinem.]

of limestone occurs in horizontal strata, and directly over the village of St. Pietro the whole rock assumes again the stratified form. Before entering the village, a beautiful plane tree is passed, the branches covering a circle of about thirty yards diameter; at its foot is a spring, from which a rivulet runs into St. Pietro, distant from Athàni, one and a half hour's ride; the houses of this village are built of a very rough, dark, hard limestone; there are about one hundred and twenty dwelling houses, and nearly six hundred inhabitants. At an hour's ride from the village, towards the opening of the valley, at the sea, is the tumulus above mentioned. Several fragments of small columns are scattered about near it, one a mutilated capital of the Ionic order. On the western side of the tumulus, the platform of a small portico may be traced, with part of the base and shaft of a small column, in so mutilated a condition however as hardly to be recognized; the column stands upon the north angle of the portico. A trough of the shape of a hollow triangular prism occupies the centre of the tumulus, and many square blocks of stone scattered about the ruin, channelled, and partly filled with lead, shew, as well as the remains of architecture, that this was the sepulchre of a person of distinction. The natives, who were busily occupied in winnowing corn on the spot, informed us that it was the tomb of a queen, who died many hundred years before. The etymology of the word Vasilichi, (Βασίλίχι,) the situation of, and the tradition re-

garding the ruin, seem to identify this structure with the tomb of Artemisia queen of Caria, who signalized herself at the councils of Xerxes, in his invasion of Greece, and particularly so at the battle of Salamis. The author of Anacharsis quotes a passage from Ptolomæus. Heph. ap. Phot. p. 491. from which it appears that a tomb was erected to her in this island. The vicinity of the Leap to this delightful valley and ruin seem almost to confirm this conjecture.

The passage from Anacharsis, is as follows:

" On montre à Leucade le tombeau d'Artemise, de cette fameuse reine de Carie qui donna tant de preuves de son courage à la bataille de Salamine. Eprise d'une passion violente pour un jeune homme qui ne repondoit pas à son amour, elle le surprit dans le sommeil et lui creva les yeux. Bientôt les regrets et le désespoir l'amenèrent à Leucade où elle périt dans les flots, malgré les efforts que l'on fit pour la sauver."

Voyage du Jeune Anacharsis, Tom. II. p. 346.—*Paris, quarto.*

Proceeding from this towards the sea, fragments of cyclopean walls are met with, and one, the remains of a round tower constructed in the same stile. In fact, ruins of cyclopic are met with along the base of the mountain, from near the sea to St. Pietro. Tesselated pavements and vast masses of ancient pottery are found by digging. Crossing

the valley near Saint Pietro, the traveller will arrive at the house of Mr. Zalamba, at Sparteà, beautifully situated at the eastern side of the vale of Vasilichì. This is probably the best dwelling house in the island; the family, which are one of the most respectable, own a considerable portion of the plain, and have here a very large establishment, consisting of a comfortable and well furnished house, with extensive magazines for corn, wine, and oil. Notwithstanding the beauty of the situation, there is a total want of taste in the laying out of this sweet spot, which derives so many charms from nature. A double row of tall dark cypresses forms an avenue, leading up to the house, which has a pretty effect enough, but is excessively formal and gloomy. The house is built with scarcely any regularity or design, being massed together with a heap of magazines, which occupy the lower part, just as the farming conveniences seemed to require. One of the rooms is fitted up as a study, in which are many Greek and Italian books; among the rest, Romaic translations of Goldsmith's Greece, and Telemachus. Besides St. Pietro, are here the villages of Sievro, containing nearly three hundred people, and St. Ellia with upwards of three hundred inhabitants, at a great elevation. At twenty minutes' ride from the house at Sparteà the village of Condarena is passed upon the right, and another beautiful valley opens to the left, over which, upon the side of a hill, hangs the village of Marandocori, which contains two hundred and seventy people.

Condarena about the same. Upon our approach, along the plain to the village of Marandocori, a very delightful scene was enjoyed. The morning mist had risen from the valley, tinged with the orange rays of the sun, and climbing gently up the mountain side, upon which the village stands, had reached the base of the latter, under which it drew a beautiful level line, resembling the surface of a lake of liquid gold, upon which the village seemed to rest. The calmness of the atmosphere allowed it to ascend gradually, and still unbroken, when the village became first obscured, and lastly appeared like a city sunk under water. This beautiful phenomenon was watched with singular satisfaction, until the powerful rays of the sun now increasing in strength, gradually dissipated the cloud. At twenty minutes ride from Marandocori, a little plain is crossed producing corn, at the extremity of which, the most practicable of the beds of the torrents must be selected, to ascend the mountain. Upon gaining the top, a little circular plain is crossed, about one-eighth of a mile in diameter; the surface is covered with a very red powdery soil, in which are intermixed minute spangles of calcareous spar, which with the red earth had been washed down from the neighbouring mountains. The natives are persuaded that these splendid scales are particles of silver, and accordingly call the place —the land of silver. A large village, Porrò, is seen to the right, at a considerable distance and very elevated, being upon the steep acclivity of a high mountain. It contains above four hundred inhabi-

tants. Fternò is a small village containing about one hundred and fifty people, situated upon the summit of the hill, on the way to Catechori. From this point is a beautiful view of Porto Englimenò, which is an inlet of the channel, at a great depth below; here are the remains of an ancient city called* Ellomenos, in a plain adjoining the beach, and shut in by mountains.

Catechori is situated upon the southern face of a peak of the mountain, upon the eastern coast; it is at a very considerable elevation, there being a steep descent of half an hour to the sea beach: this peak is surrounded by other masses of mountain which almost encompass it around. By this means it is exposed to the meridian sun, no current of air having access to it, excepting by an opening towards the east, a point from which the wind seldom blows in the hot months. That part of the mountain upon which the village is built is composed of strata of secondary limestone; the fragments of the rock are so regular that the inhabitants have very little trouble in building their houses. The lofty ridges impending over the village are deeply streaked down their sides, indicating a softness in the mass which renders it subject to the impression of the mountain streams after rain. This channelled appearance, as also the darkness and blueness of the

* This city was of sufficient importance to induce the Athenians to take it in the sixth year of the Poloponnesian war. (Thucyd. b. 3. c. 10.) hardly a trace of it now remains.

colour, render it probable that these more elevated ridges were chiefly composed of blue limestone in decay, strata of which, and of soft sandstone, are met with about and beneath the village. Masses of calcareous spar are observed to project in many places on the road descending the mountain. There is no water to be procured within a mile of the village, the inhabitants having to ascend a very steep and rough mountain path to the wells of the village above, Fternò; or to descend an equal distance, down a similarly rough and steep road, to reach the only spring belonging to the village of Catechori. The water in the upper village, Fternò, was turbid, ten days after a fall of rain, that of the lower spring was however clear and well tasted at the same time. In the summer of 1817 a detachment of British soldiers were quartered in this village, consisting of a serjeant and fifteen men, for the purpose of protecting the coast: they were afterwards removed, in consequence of the whole detachment, with an English woman, wife of one of the soldiers, having been attacked with remittent fever of the worst type. Three of the sick died in the military hospital at Santa Maura, and two were reduced to the last extremity from debility, producing extensive mortifications; the convalescense of the remainder was also extremely protracted and precarious. The villages suffered greatly by the fever at the same time, although in the summer and autumn of 1818, they were comparatively free from it. Various causes were assigned for this

sickness. It was by most people attributed to the exhalations arising out of Porto Englimenò; but the height of the village above the water, renders this very improbable. The irregularity of this party was also thought to have caused the sickness; the men were said to have drunk aqua vitæ immoderately, and to have exposed themselves without caution to the heat of the sun; but again, some who did not indulge in these excesses were equally ill with the rest; and this circumstance would not account, for the disease prevailing in so much greater a degree that season, amongst the inhabitants themselves. It would appear that these latter are but occasional causes, and that there exists, something in the nature of the soil itself sufficient to produce the disease, added to a particular constitution of the air, which rendered the summer of 1817 so sickly throughout the whole of the Mediterranean. The situation and soil of Catechori, as well as the climate and many other local circumstances connected with it, greatly resemble those of Ibiso or Gesso, described by the late Dr. Irvine, in his treatise upon the diseases of Sicily.

From Catechori to Engluvì, is about four hours' leisurely riding; the road consists in a descent first to the plain of Englimenò, passing through that remarkable ravine mentioned in page 42; it then crosses the plain and ascends the great mountain, El Vouno. This is exceedingly steep and rough; at a considerable height is the village of

Neochori, containing about two hundred and thirty people; the situation is romantic. From the higher parts of the mountain is another magnificent view of the port and plain of Englimenò, the latter intersected by the beds of the torrents, which have cut their way from the base of the mountain, through it, to the sea. The harbour of Englimenò is seen from this point to great advantage; it appears as if it were formed by a mass of the mountain, which had fallen from the island into the sea, and had nearly insulated itself, preserving its continuity with the mountain at its southern end. There is also from this point a grand prospect of the islands; a small part of Zante, some of Cephalonia, and a part of Ithaca, the Oxiæ, the Morea, and the whole chain of the mountains of Acarnania being visible at once; the Teleboæ, Meganisi, extended like a map under one's feet, and the gulph of Arta, complete this magnificent panoramic view.

The road continues to be extremely precipitous and still the ascent continues. The villages of Vafcherì and Alexandro are passed, after having gained the summit of the mountain, upon the right hand, the former containing about one hundred and thirty, and the latter five hundred and seventy inhabitants.

Engluvì is the highest village in the island; the situation is singular; it lies as it were in the bottom of a cup formed by a cluster of peaks of the moun-

tain, which surround it; there is however an opening to the north-west, by which the inhabitants enjoy the full benefit of the breeze, which almost constantly descends upon them from the aperture in the hot weather. There are about one hundred and twenty houses. The high situation renders the vegetation much later here: the corn was quite green upon the fourth of June, 1819, although mostly cut in other parts of the island. It is reckoned a cool and healthy village. The water is excellent, and one of the natives declared, that a pound of it is lighter by several ounces than a *pound* of water in other places! The wood for firing is scarce and difficult to be got, they have to descend the mountain to the sea beach, from whence it has to be carried up upon mules.

The distance from Engluvi to Santa Maura is about four hours and a half's ride. The road passes through a plain, the natural history of which is rather extraordinary. Although at this elevation, the distance from Engluvi not exceeding one hour and a half's gentle descent, it is completely surrounded by the higher ridges of the mountain, which form a perfect basin, from which there is no exit for the water. The bottom, like all the low grounds in the island is perfectly level, from the lightness of the soil, which is carried down by the mountain floods and deposited evenly over the whole surface It extends in length about half an hours' journey. The peculiarity of its position renders it subject to an annual inundation, which takes place

about the close of October, after the rains, leaving a very rich deposit of soil. When sufficiently dry in April or May, the water being completely evaporated by the heat, it is sown with corn, of which it yields a large produce, the greatest part being appropriated to the revenues of the convent of St. John. The largest village in the island, Carià, is situated to the westward of this plain, upon the side of the mountain; the convent of St. John is upon the opposite side, to the right. Carià contains about nine hundred and fifty inhabitants. At the extremity of the plain, before entering the village of Sfachiotes, several beautiful stratifications of rock are observed, chiefly of sand-stone; a very remarkable one is seen upon the right, the strata of which are nearly vertical. Sfachiotes is a very large village, containing about eight hundred inhabitants. The road from this to the town of Santa Maura is down a rapid and rough descent, but beautiful in the extreme from the opening of the magnificent scenery described at the conclusion of Chap. I. The insurrectionary mob that collected in such numbers during the disturbance of this island, had to be beaten up this long and difficult ascent, by a handful of British soldiers, until they were obliged to lay down their arms and their ridiculous pretensions together.

Besides the excursion just described, there remains another, along the eastern coast of the

island, to Meganisi; a very good road has been constructed by the British, leading through the ruins of Leucate, and towards Englimenò and Catechori. The beauty of the scenery and the goodness of the road render this a pleasant ride. After passing the ruins of Leucate, a charming romantic spot is reached, where is a natural fountain covered with tall luxuriant sycamores, called, the Fountain of the Pacha.—The distance is about eight miles from town.

In the southern entrance of the channel are a few small islands belonging to Santa Maura; the most considerable of these is, from its greater size, called Meganisi. It is about ten miles long. The coasts are indented by several excellent harbours, with deep water. The solid part of this island is composed of a fine carbonate of lime,* beautifully stratified. At the base it is piled in horizontal tables of various degrees of thickness, but laid in very regular order. This structure is quite apparent above low water mark, as you approach the island; the sea having worn away the loose matter in the interstices of the tables. Towards the surface, these strata take a vertical direction; giving the earth a ridged appearance, the soil having been washed away from between them to the depth of several feet. This stratification is evidently a continuation of that in the corresponding mountains of Santa Maura, in the neighbourhood

* Called by Mr. Murray, in his System of Chemistry, the compact carbonate of lime.

of Catechori as above described. The grain and herbage grow in the ridges, formed in the interstices of the vertical strata, and the cultivation is carried on by means of the spade or hoe, it being impossible to use a plough.

This rocky island becomes more impoverished every year, the soil being continually washed away by the rains, and there are no vallies to arrest it in its progress to the sea. The present population amounts to above six hundred people. A great quantity of goats and sheep are fed upon the island. It produces much grain, particularly barley; flax too grows upon it in abundance, and a great quantity of cheese is made here. The water is brackish. About thirty years ago a great quantity of fine coral was found upon the eastern coast, and is probably yet to be procured. Several Neapolitan feluccas were then employed in this fishery, and by all accounts they appear to have been very successful. During the time that these islands were under the Venetian republic, this place was the haunt of pirates and assassins, most of them escaped or outlawed from Albania. Homer gives these islanders, admitting it to be the ancient Taphios, the same character; as in the Odyssey, Ταφιοι λωιτορες ανδρες; Mentes, who was their king, says in another place Ταφιοισιν φιληρετμοισιν ανασσω. The two circumstances, of its having so remarkably good harbours, and its being infested until so very lately with pirates, might

be offered as coincidences with Homer's epithets and descriptions, and as corresponding with Mons. D'Anville's opinion, that Meganisi is the ancient Taphios, one of the Teleboæ.

CHAPTER VII.

Antiquities of Leucadia—Ruins of the ancient city Lucate —Remains of the bridge, described as a ruin by Strabo, still exist.—Great Cyclopean walls—Probable amount of the population, calculated from the circumference of the ruins—Excursion to Prevesa—description of that town and of the entrance of the gulf of Arta—Ali Pacha's palace—Dock yard—the mosque at Prevesa —Ride to Nicopolis—ruins—two theatres—aqueduct —Hippodrome—Reflections upon the ruins.

LEUCADIA still retains memorials of its ancient splendour, bearing testimony to the correctness of the old historians and geographers, and affording an ample field of inquiry for the literary traveller and the philosopher. The walls and other remains of once flourishing, or at least extensive and populous cities, are yet to be traced, indicating great power and high antiquity*. Of these, the ruins of

* Eight hundred Leucadians and Anactori together, were drawn up in the Greek line opposite the Asopus at Platæa, according to Herodotus. *Vide* HEROD. b. ix. c. 28. next to these were posted two hundred Paleans from Cephalonia.

Leucate are the most considerable, situated at two miles distance from the town of Santa Maura. This city was built by the people of Nerikos, a colony of Corinthians, who had settled upon the opposite side, but found it necessary to remove hither most probably for the sake of security. Laërtes in the Odyssey is made to boast of having taken Nerikos at the head of the Cephalonians*.

No trace of ornamental architecture is to be found amongst the ruins; the immense quadrangular blocks of stone, and pieces of massy cyclopean walls indicate the rudeness and insecurity of the remote ages in which they were constructed. Several of the tombs have been opened by Colonel Sir P. Ross, and were found to contain pieces of ancient pottery and bronze, with bas reliefs exhibiting an elegance of taste in design and execution, very different indeed from that of the present day. In a subterraneous passage, which the Colonel had excavated in the spring of 1818, was found an earthen vessel containing above fifty pieces of copper coins of the town of Æneadæ, an old city of Acarnania at the mouth of the Acheloüs, together with a silver coin of one of the Philips of Macedon. The copper pieces were cemented together by the verdigrise, and afford a very curious and interesting specimen, having been probably secreted at the time that the coin was in currency, and with the design

* Od. b. 24. l. 374.

of recovering them again, perhaps, at a season of more tranquility*.

Leucate was built, partly upon the eastern face of a chain of low hills, and partly upon a plain extending from their base to the channel. The hills are abrupt and inaccessible upon the western side, where they are, as it were, insulated from the body of the island by a deep ravine. The line of hills was further defended by three acropoli, built upon the most projecting points, and connected together by cyclopean walls, which formed a sort of curtain in the intervals. The whole circuit of the ruins amounts to six thousand four hundred and fifty-five paces, including the parts upon the hill and those upon the plain.

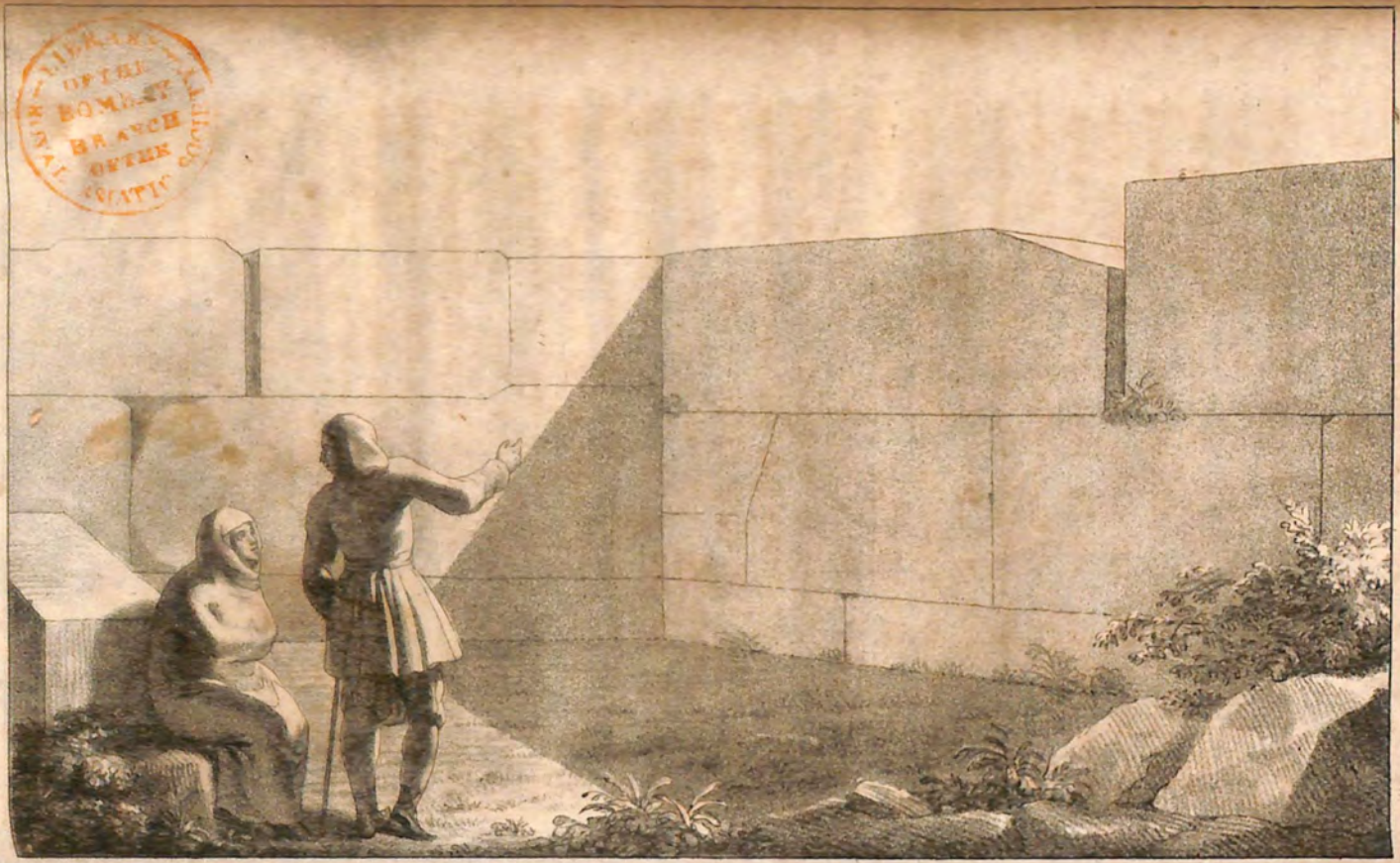
Towards the south the limits are not so easily assigned, as many ruins are found beyond the butt of the great cyclopean wall, which would otherwise appear to have formed the boundary at that side. Beyond this wall was also the cemetery, where the tombs have been opened. Upon the east, the city was defended by the channel, along which ran another line of cyclopean wall, the remains of which are to be traced at broken intervals, running by the

* Many similar coins are picked up *singly* in the olive grounds and vineyards that occupy the site of the old city, but these were carefully concealed in an earthen pot, and were removed from their place of concealment just as they were deposited; the author witnessed the discovery with no small satisfaction.

beach. At about the middle of this line the channel contracts suddenly, where the old isthmus commenced, which was cut through by the Corinthians, according to Strabo*. A little dismantled fort called the Russian fortress, marks the spot. By crossing the channel here directly, in a boat, the remains of the bridge described by Strabo are discovered at the Acarnanian side. This very ancient and interesting ruin consists of a line of large square stones laid together two and two, and constituting a narrow road of about five feet in width, leading from the continent for several hundred yards across the shallow part of the channel, until it reaches the deep water at the Acarnanian side; from this point springs the abutment of a bridge; and a little nearer to the island, may be discovered under water, in clear weather, the piers of some of the arches. At about the middle of the narrow road leading to the bridge is a little islet, upon which are the foundations of several small square buildings of cut stone, and probably belonging to some little temple† which

* Strabo, book x.

† Palmerius (de Antiq. Græc. book ii. chap. 10.) refers to a passage in Dion. Halicarnass. who, in book i. speaking of the flight of Æneas and the Trojans, says, that they built a temple to Venus between Dyorycthos and Leucas on a little island. Whether Æneas ever arrived here or not, the description of the site of the temple corresponds to the ruins here in question, which appear to have been at least coeval with the bridge, and agree exactly to the description of Palmerius. The passage quoted is: ἐκεῖθεν δὲ στελάγιον ποιησάμενοι τ' πλεν εἰς Λευκάδα καταίγονται κατισχόντων ἔτι το χωριον Ακαρνάνων. καὶ ταυτη πάλιν ιηρὸν Αφροδιτης ἱδρύονται τουτο ὁ ων ἐστὶν ἐν τῆ


ASIATIC SOCIETY
OF THE
BOMBAY
BRANCH

was erected here; or perhaps it was a sort of toll house.

The wall which defended the city to the north was very strong and lofty. Upon the ruins of its base a water-course has been constructed, which turns two little mills on its way to the sea. Following the water-course down, the foundation of a square building will be observed below the first mill, which are represented in plate I. This was constructed at a period when the method of building in regular courses had been nearly perfected, and is here but little deviated from. In the corner of a house close to the sea, and fronting the lower watermill, is a marble, a copy of which, with the inscription upon it, is given in fig. 2. plate VIII. The letters are beautifully cut. The proprietor of the mills says, that the stone belonged to an old gate which tumbled down many years ago. From this it appears, that the people of Apollonia had some share in the public works here, and that they had erected a gate, or wall, or perhaps constructed part of the road which went to communicate with the mole towards Apollonia, as shall be presently described.

The population of Leucate may have amounted to between fifteen and eighteen thousand, calculating

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ποιδί τη μεταξυ τε Διορύκτε τε και της πόλεος· Καλείται δε Αφροδίτης Ανειφαδος. DION. HAL. b. 1. ch. 50.

from the number of inhabitants contained in the town of Santa Maura compared with its circumference*. It is therefore probable that this single city contained as many people as the whole island does at the present day. Livy gives ample testimony of their bravery, and the character of the ruins before us corroborates his account fully†. The manner in

* Or if the number be calculated from the population of Thebes, compared with the circumference of its walls, (vide Anacharsis, c. 35. p. 247.) stated to be fifty thousand in forty-three stadia. Six thousand four hundred and fifty-five paces at thirty inches, would be about twenty-six stadia in round numbers, making the number of inhabitants considerably more than twenty-five thousand. Or if we take the number of inhabitants of Thebes, with Hume, (vide Populousness of Ancient Nations,) at thirty-four thousand, and the circumference forty-three stadia, we must conclude at the lowest that Leucate contained seventeen thousand inhabitants.

† Leucade hæc sunt decreta, id caput Acarnaniæ erat, eoque in concilium omnes populi conveniebant. Itaque, cum hæc repentina mutatio Corcyram ad legatum Flaminium perlata esset, extemplo cum classe profectus, Leucadem ad Heræum, quod vocant, naves adplicuit. Inde cum omni genere tormentorum machinarumque, quibus expugnantur urbes, ad muros accessit, ad primum terrorem ratus inclinari animos posse. Postquam pacati nihil ostendebatur, tum vineas turresque erigere, et arietem admovere muris cœpit. Acarnania universa, inter Ætoliam atque Epirum posita, solem occidentem et mare Siculum spectat. Leucadia, nunc insula, et vadoso freto, quod perfossum manu est, ab Acarnania divisa, tum peninsula erat, occidentis regione arctis faucibus cohærens Acarnaniæ. Quingentos ferme passus longæ fauces erant; latæ haud amplius centum et viginti. In his angustiis Leucas posita est, colli adplicata verso in orientem et Acarnaniam. Ima urbis plana sunt, jacentia ad mare, quo Leucadia ab Acarnania dividitur, inde terra marique expugnabilis est. Nam et vada sunt stagno similiora, quam mari:

which the large stones are found scattered, as it were by the Roman engines, furnishes curious evidence, of the obstinate defence made by the Leucati, and the consequent determination of the Romans to put a stop to all resistance of so hazardous a nature in future, by effectually demolishing the walls.

The importance of Leucate, in a commercial point of view, must have been no less great in those early ages, than the spirit of independence and the prowess of its citizens. The channel, notwithstanding the labour and expense which the new colony must have incurred in digging the canal, was, either from the beginning unnavigable, or shortly became so, by the constant accumulation of gravel at it's mouth. This probably determined them to construct a mole, forming a deep harbour at the north-west point of the island, and at about three miles and a half or four miles distance from the city.

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et campus terrenus omnis, operique facilis. Itaque multis simul locis aut subruti, aut ariete decussi, ruebant muri. Sed quam urbs ipsa opportuna obpugnantibus erat, tam inexpugnabiles hostium animi. Die ac nocte intenti reficere quassata muri; obstruere quæ patefacta ruinis erant; prælia impigre inire, et armis magis muros, quam seipsos mœnibus tutari, diutiusque spe Romanorum obsidionem eam extraxissent, ni exules quidam Italici generis, Leucade habitantes, ab arce milites accepissent, eos tamen ex superiore loco magno cum tumultu decurrentes, acie in foro instructa, justo prælio aliquamdiu Leucadii sustinuerunt. Interim et scalis capta multis locis mœnia, et per stragem lapidum ac ruinas transcensum in urbem. Jamque ipse legatus magno agmine circumvenerat pugnantes, pars in medio cæsi; pars, armis abjectis dedederunt se victori.—*Tit. Liv. a Drakenborch*, Amst. 1741. 4to. lib. 33, c. 17.

This harbour was connected with the city by a strong cyclopean wall, which ran along the base of the mountain, and through the plain in rear of the present town, shutting up the only defile in the mountains by which the city could have been surprised. It was strengthened at intervals by projecting square towers*, and at about the middle it was united to a second similar wall, running from it at right angles to the gate at the back of the town of Santa Maura. These ruins are concealed in the olive wood behind the town of Santa Maura. Two thousand five hundred paces of the first are to be traced, running in a direct line between the old mole and Leucate, and about one thousand paces of the second. The towers project towards the channel: they are about eight paces square upon the outside. The butt of the old mole is also still in existence, but, what is rather singular, the best informed of the natives are ignorant of it's existence†. The very ancient stile of the standing walls, the dispersion of the large masses of stone which composed the remainder, probably caused by the breaching by the Roman engines, the existence of the bridge made to pass the canal, at the point where the head of the isthmus originally was, and where the ruins of Leucate are now found, exactly as described by Livy and Strabo, are facts, which demonstrate the

* A Sketch of one of the towers is given in Plate II.

† Its site is laid down in the map, as also the lines of the two cyclopean walls.

G. Scharf lithog. Printed by C. Motte & Co. W. Goodisson del.

RUINS OF A SQUARE TOWER, LEICAIA

truth of history as it relates to events connected with them, and to a mind impressed with the importance and the love of truth, cannot fail to furnish a source of delightful contemplation.

At about five miles distance from the castle of Santa Maura, is the town of Prevesa, containing nearly four thousand inhabitants, Greeks and Mahometans. The Pacha occasionally resides here, generally paying an annual visit in the early part of the year, when he is accompanied by a large body of troops, often four thousand strong, to collect his revenues in this quarter. Prevesa in the time of the Venetians, is said to have had a population of fifteen thousand people. It is situated about four or five miles below the mouth of the gulph of Arta, on the northern shore. The entrance to the gulph is defended by a fortress near the town, which is built mostly of stones taken from the ruins of Argos Amphilochum, an old city, the ruins of which exist at the bottom of the gulph. There is a second new fort, (in which also a seraglio is to be built,) nearly completed, at about one mile and a half from the town, towards the entrance of the gulph. These works are most unscientifically constructed; in the bastions, the breeches of three guns often touch, so close are the embrasures.

The entrance of the gulph is narrow and very shallow in general, so much so as to require a good knowledge of the channel to carry even small craft

through with safety. The bottom is very uneven, consisting of rocky ledges which project upwards; upon these are deposited great quantities of oysters, which are small, but of good flavour. Prevesa is the only port in the vizier's territories. A corvette of eighteen guns lies in the harbour, her rigging and cordage half decayed. She can only be removed from her station by lightening her of her guns, and when re-equipped, her appearance is not very formidable. There is here also a dock yard, which is an open space in the court of the palace, upon which the keel of a ship has been laid down for several years. The timber intended for its construction is carried through a breach made purposely in the wall of the palace yard; and for security sake, a portion of it is left there to block up the passage, the remainder having been deposited in the ground floor range of the palace, which serves as a magazine for all sorts of timber. One is much puzzled to guess how this ship, when built, is to reach the water, (her nose coming up close to the wall,) but is agreeably surprized when informed, that a breach is also to be made here, through which she is to be launched. The town consists chiefly of little miserable huts, divided by narrow streets crowded with the Pacha's soldiers, who, from the variety of costume, exhibit motley groups indeed. Yet the personal appearance of the men is fine. No women are to be seen, and the rest of the inhabitants are generally squatted at their doors and windows, their usual employment being

smoking or expurgating their persons, with all that apathy, and indifference to strangers, which is so peculiar to the Turks.

The palace or seraglio is built at the water side, and from the number of large windows, and the gaudy daubings upon the outside, it has rather a shewy appearance, although the masses of building are without design in the general plan. The lower part is occupied by the naval and ordnance stores, consisting of scattered pieces of timber, and a few field pieces and gun carriages, most of them unfit for use. The upper part of the building is divided into rooms of various sizes, but generally constructed and furnished after the same fashion. A number of windows crowded together gives them great light and airiness. Each apartment is surrounded by a divan, and the floors are covered with Egyptian mats. The chimnies project over the hearth in form of a pyramid. They burn cedar upon the hearths.

The mosque is a curious specimen of taste in the way of architecture. It is surrounded by a colonade, which is made up of fragments of ancient pillars of every order: a capital of the Corinthian or Composite often crowning a plain Tuscan or Doric shaft. It was obviously necessary that they should all be of the same height to support the roof, accordingly this is the only point of uniformity in this odd assemblage, which might be well named the

disorder of architecture. All the pillars are short, the longer fragments having been cut down to match the shorter. Some of them are beautifully fluted. In many the flutings run spirally round the shaft, which is far from being an improvement to the column: the perpendicular flutings give an idea of strength and stability, which this gothic conceit destroys altogether. There are a few rich capitals, but much mutilated, crowning these extraordinary stumps: so that of the building, one may say with Horace,

> ——————ut, nec pes nec caput uni
> Reddatur formæ.

Of the acuteness and sagacity of the vizier in matters of equity, and of his extraordinary memory, many anecdotes are related. The following, which were told us upon the spot, may not be uninteresting.

"A merchant of Yanina, having occasion for a sum of money to enable him to enter into a certain commercial speculation, applied to a Greek priest, his friend, for assistance. The priest entertaining a high opinion of the merchant's integrity, and having in his possession some thousand piastres, lent the whole to him on a promise that it would be repaid to him by a certain time. The period fixed for the repayment having elapsed, and the priest being in want of the money, mentioned the circumstance to the merchant, requesting at the same time a resti-

tution of part of the sum lent, to supply his immediate wants. The merchant affecting surprise at the extraordinary demand, denied having ever received from the other any part of the money alluded to. The poor priest, as may easily be imagined, felt deeply the villainy of his pretended friend, and having no other alternative, laid a statement of the affair, in the form of a complaint, before Ali Pacha. The Pacha having ordered both parties to appear before him, the merchant did again positively deny all knowledge of the circumstance, and the priest, in reply to a question put to him, having said, that; relying on the word of his friend, he had taken no acknowledgment in the form of a receipt from him, the Pacha informed the complainant that as he could adduce no proofs of a satisfactory nature, without which nothing could be done in the affair, he felt himself under the necessity of dismissing them, directing, at the same time, that they should trouble him no farther upon the subject. No sooner however were they out of his immediate presence, than he ordered, that, previous to their departure they should both be *weighed*, and their respective weights noted down. After a considerable lapse of time, and when this transaction seemed to have been buried in oblivion, the priest and merchant were ordered again to appear before the Pacha, who directed that, before they were admitted to his presence, they should be weighed as on the former occasion. The Pacha perceiving that the merchant had increased in weight, but that the priest was not

nearly so heavy as he was before, and having ascertained that this difference in the weight of the latter, was not the effect of any bodily indisposition, but could be attributed solely to vexation of mind, caused by the infamous conduct of the merchant, his quondam friend, which the Pacha having stated to the latter, directed him either immediately to pay the priest, or to have his head struck off. The merchant, who well knew the stern and inflexible character of the Pacha, and to avoid the fate which awaited him, made a full confession of his own villainy, acknowledged the justice of the sentence, and repaid to the priest the sum he had borrowed from him."

A man having lent a sum of money to another, some time afterwards was repaid, but there being no witness of this latter transaction, he formed the resolution of compelling the borrower to pay it over again, and referred his affair to Ali Pacha.—The man who had borrowed the money denied the justice of the demand, saying that he had already made restitution, and that he had counted the money upon the top of a certain large stone. Bring the stone hither, said the Pacha, in order that I may see it. That he is not able to do, said the complainant, it is too heavy for him to carry!!!

Of the correct information of Ali Pacha in every thing at all connected with the provinces subject to his controul, and that even the most minute circumstances do not escape his notice, the follow-

ing is a convincing proof: towards the end of the year 1817, some unfortunate Greeks fled from the tyranny of this inexorable despot, and took refuge in the island of Santa Maura. The Pacha having applied to the local authorities to have the refugees given up to him, in order that they might be punished, was informed that it was inconsistent with the character and dignity of the British nation, to refuse protection to the innocent and oppressed, nor could they give up those against whom no crime whatever was alleged. The Pacha being thus disappointed, formally applied for a restitution of the property belonging to him, consisting of a few articles of wearing apparel carried off by these unfortunate individuals, every item of which was minutely described, in a list accompanying the application, specifying, not only the number of shirts or stockings in the possession of each individual, but such as were whole, and such as had been patched or mended. Those who are acquainted with the costume of these unhappy creatures, will be able to form a just estimate of the value of their wardrobe. This application met of course with the fate of the preceding one.

From the top of the minaret is a magnificent view of the plain of Prevesa and gulph of Arta, with the ruins of Nicopolis and the fine range of mountains in the distance. The entrance of the gulph is also seen from this point. Two tongues of land project from the jaws of the gulph, overlapping each other right

across the mouth. That from the north lies behind and within the other: at it's extremity is the promontory of Actium, and at it's root is the harbour of Prevesa. A long canal is thus formed between these two tongues of land, leading from Prevesa into the gulph. The road to Nicopolis is over a rich plain, covered with olives: it is about an hour and a quarter's quick ride to the ruins, the neighbourhood of which is clothed with most luxuriant grass and corn. The city was built at the north-west extremity of this plain, lying at about eight miles from the mouth of the gulph of Arta. The plain itself is situated upon the isthmus formed by the northern projection of land before described, having the sea upon one side and the gulph upon the other. A range of low hills runs to the north of the plain in a direction east and west, being the termination of a ridge of the Cassiopæan mountains: from the western extremity of this range an aqueduct was carried to the city, parallel with the sea shore, from which it is distant about half a mile. The piers and buttresses of most of the arches are still remaining. A great part of the city wall to the east also still remains, with many of the arches of the gates. They are disposed in the following manner: a large, arched, centre gate, with a smaller square one at each side, appears at certain distances in the wall, with one or two other small gates again in the intervals. Over one of these at the northern end is said to be an inscription, which is too high to be reached without a ladder. At the foot of the low range of hills to

G. Schaerf Lithog. Printed by C. Motte & Co W. Goodisson del.

the north, are to be seen the remains of a theatre* in good preservation, and near it is the hippodrome covered with rich grass, where the vizier feeds his cavalry horses. There are also the remains of a second theatre, in the city, at the opposite side of the hippodrome, directly facing the former. About the centre of the aqueduct is a mass of square building, surrounded by a narrow arched gallery. In the centre of this ruin are the remains of a large square apartment, with an arched niche in the middle of the north and south walls. Possibly this building was a court of justice.

The different character of these from that of the ruins of many other cities near and around them, is particularly striking. The great masses of red brick, in which a single stone is hardly to be seen, contrasts in an extraordinary manner with those we have been already describing, which are composed altogether of blocks of stone. Conviction of the truth of the history of nearly twenty ages, rushes as it were at once into the mind of the spectator, called up by the evidence which now lies before him, namely, the evidence of the fact, that a great Roman city was founded here, in Greece, many ages previous to his own existence, shewing the preponderancy of that power in the heart of a nation, which bears in itself internal evidence of its own ancient greatness and splendour.

* A sketch of this theatre is given, plate III.

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Shall we neglect the lesson, which, the genius of Time, as it were, here attempts so eloquently to impress upon us, with a pencil of light that illuminates the whole page of history with it's touch: a lesson, so humiliating to man as a short-lived individual, yet so ennobling and so elevating to him as forming a part of his species. Let us imagine the sceptic to be placed here, and to commune with this hoary preceptor, whom we shall suppose to dwell alone in these awful, desolated solitudes; and then demand of him: do these monuments speak truth and conviction? and, are there not other mighty truths, collateral facts, and occurrences, of which you are still more doubtful, if not more ignorant; whose evidence may not be less conclusive, although, perchance, no such tangible proofs now lie before you? We fear that there are! Have you examined the evidence upon which those cotemporary facts are founded, and have been already engraven upon the page of history? It is to be feared, not! And here we imagine the angry genius to break off all communication with a frail and short-sighted mortal, who is yet so presumptuous, and so blind to his own great interests, as to measure his, some fifty years' experience, with that of a being, whose forehead is deeply channelled with the cares and research of ages.

CHAPTER VIII.

ITHACA.

Ἀλλ ἄγε τοί δείξω Ἰθάκης εἶδος ὄφρα πεποιθῃς.
Φορκυνος μεν δδ' ἐστι λιμὴν, ἁλίοιο γέροντος.
Ἥδε δ'ἐπί κρατὸς λιμενος τανυφυλλος ἐλαίη
Ἀγγόθι δ'αὐτῆς ἄντρον ἐπήρατον ἠεροειδὲς
Ἱερὸν Νυμφάων αἳ Νηΐαδες καλεονται.
Τῦτο δε τοί σπεος ἐυρὺ κατηρεφὲς ἔνθα σὺ πολλὰς
Ἑρδεσκες Νυμφῆσι τελήεσσας ἑκατόμβας
Τῦτο δε Νήριτον εστίν ὄρος κατα εἰμενον ὕλη.

Odyssey, b. 13. l. 344.

Behold! where Neritos the clouds divides,
And shakes the waving forests on his sides. POPE.

Geographical position of Thiaki—Echinades—Samos. Islet of Dascallio. Topographical description of—The great port—Neritos — Neios —Aito. Population—Produce—Revenue—Commercial and other employments of the inhabitants. Antiquity of the island—want of traditional records accounted for. Grotto of the Nymphs—Port Reithros—Korax and fountain of Arethusa—Singular structure of the rock above the cliff Korax—conjecture arising therefrom—Excursion to the place called Homer's School—Ruins of the city of Alalcomene—Beautiful scenery at the village of Lefki, supposed by Sir W. Gell to be the

site of the garden of Laërtes—Ruins of the castle of Ulysses upon mount Aito, and ancient city of Ithaca—Position of the fountain of Ithacus—Identity of Ithaca proved from Telemachus's voyage—Evidence from Ulysses's voyage—Conclusion.

THE island of Ithaca, called Thiaki by the modern Greeks, lies to the southward of Leucadia, or Santa Maura. It is also separated from the coast of Acarnania, by a channel of about fifteen miles in breadth, which becomes, however, rapidly wider, as the gulph of Lepanto opens to the south-east.

A number of other inconsiderable islands are scattered between it and the continent, the principal of which are the Teleboæ, the latter being, however, chiefly situated between Leucadia and the continent. A small island called Ataco, lies about midchannel; its name has given it some pretension to the title of ancient Ithaca; it is too inconsiderable, however, to be regarded as the rival of Thiaki for that honour: indeed every object and every circumstance connected with the latter, clearly indicate that the modern Thiaki is the island described by Homer as the residence of Ulysses.

The Echinades, a cluster of islands still more to the southward, are also visible from Ithaca. They are situated at the mouth of the Acheloüs: of these

the most remarkable are the Oxiæ; a name well applied on account of the ruggedness of their figure. To the whole of the western coast of Ithaca is opposed a part of the eastern coast of Cephalonia, from which it is separated by a channel of irregular width, varying from ten to about fifteen miles: the beautiful bay of Samos opens its bosom nearly opposite to the centre of Ithaca, from which it is distant about ten miles.

These are the principal objects connected with the geographical position of the island. In the northern entrance of the channel is yet another small islet called Dascallio; it is the only one now existing between Ithaca and Cephalonia: its claim to notice shall hereafter be considered.

Ithaca is about fifteen miles long*. Its breadth is very irregular, from the peculiarity of its figure. It consists of two large masses of mountain, united by a third, but of considerably less size than the

* Spon, with a view of reconciling Strabo's description of the islands, applies the name of Ithaca to Ataco, the island mentioned above, lying between Thiaki and the continent, as corresponding with Strabo's account of the size of Ithaca. The same writer calls Thiaki, Dulichium. This however is as contradictory of Strabo's authority, as the other supposition; for Strabo says that Dulichium was one of the Echinades. It is clear that Ataco could not have been the Ithaca alluded to by Homer, as Asteris is described by him, as lying between it and Cephalonia; besides which, Homer's account evidently implies the existence of two mountains in Ithaca, whereas Ataco is a single rock.

others, and being of an oblong ridged shape, has much the appearance of an isthmus connecting two islands together. The remaining interval between the two great mountains gives an opening to a very singular bay, which is decidedly the most remarkable feature in the topography of the island. Neritos, the largest of the two great mountain masses, flanks the bay to the north. The second, which is now called mount Stephanos, was probably the ancient Neios*, and forms the second great prominent barrier to the southward of the bay, which is called Port Molo.

Aito, or the eagle mountain, occupies the centre of the island. Its elevation is, as was before said, considerably less than that of the others, and as it connects them together, it also backs the great bay to the westward, which is nearly of an oblong

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* These names are now universally applied to the objects described, by whomsoever restored, invented, or conjectured. Sir W. Gell has had a large share in the discovery, so as to have left indeed nothing to future tourists, but to bring forward matter corroborating or opposing his opinions. Homer points out Neios in describing port Reithros,—

Νηῦς δέ μοι ἔνδ' ἑστηκεν ἐπ' ὠγυγίῃ νόσφι πολῆος
Ἐν λιμενὶ Ῥείθρῳ ὑπὸ Νηίῳ ὑλήεντι.

Od. b. l. 185.

Where waving groves on airy Neios grow,
Supremely tall and shade the deeps below. POPE.

and again when Telemachus tells Nestor,

Ἡμεῖς ἐξ Ἰθάκης ὑπὸ Νηίῳ εἰλήλουθμεν.

square shape, its mouth opening to the east. Upon the summit of Aito are the cyclopean walls which are supposed to be the remains of the castle of Ulysses. There is yet another hill to the westward of Neritos, to which it is connected by an isthmus, and upon which are the ruins of a city to be described hereafter; this is a small mass at the northern extremity of the island: might this be the Ægylips of Homer? Palmerius de Antiq. Græc. b. 4. c. 23. conjectures that Ægylips and Crocyleum were parts of Ithaca.

The whole of this island, like the others, consists of a mass of secondary limestone. The structure of the rock is here very rugged. The soil is so scanty and superficial as to admit of the production of hardly four month's consumption of corn for the inhabitants, and even this small portion is raised only by means of great labour. The declivities are so great where the vine and currant are cultivated, that the earth requires to be supported in terraces raised one above another, so as at a distance to resemble the benches of a theatre.

The stony nature of the soil is, however, highly favourable to the production of the currant and vine. Both produce excellent fruit, and from the black grape is made a red wine, much superior in flavour to that of the other islands, but of inferior strength, for which reason it requires careful management in order to preserve it.

The generally barren aspect of the land gives a particular beauty by the contrast to many highly interesting spots, the principal of which lie towards the north west extremity of the island.

The rock exists mostly in loose insulated masses at the surface. This is particularly observable upon the western road, leading northwards by Lefki. Near the latter village, at the foot of mount Neritos, is a prodigious pile, which overhangs the road, and gives great grandeur to the scenery. Several fragments lie between it and the sea, which have been torn away from time to time by the torrents, and carried down the mountain's side. The force of these torrents succeeding the heavy rains may readily be conceived, from the rapidity and height of the fall, the huge masses which they have borne down along with them, and the depth, sharpness, and roughness of the channels cut by them, in their accelerated course to the sea.

The population of Ithaca, including its dependencies, the chief of which is the island of Kalamos, near the continent, amounts to nine thousand five hundred, eight thousand belonging to Ithaca. In the years 1813-14-15, the average produce of currants amounted to two hundred thousand pounds weight annually; the value of each thousand pounds weight being forty-two Spanish dollars. The annual average produce of oil for the same years was, one thousand five hundred barrels, at twelve dollars medium

price per barrel; and of wine seventy thousand sechi, (each containing twelve bottles.)

The annual revenue of the island amounted in those years to ten thousand Spanish dollars.

The town of Vathi, which is the modern capital of the island, contains two thousand two hundred and fifty inhabitants. It is remarkable for its health and cleanliness; the principal street runs along the sea side, and is about a mile in length: the houses are all built of stone. Although few of the Ithacans are rich, they are all so far placed above want, that begging alms is unknown amongst them. Two causes may be assigned for this happy medium, in their circumstances; the first arising in the industry of the inhabitants themselves. They are greatly attached to a sea-faring life, not less than one third of the effective part of the male population was afloat in April 1819, busied in carrying on the commerce of the neighbouring islands, as well as that of their own. They build vessels of two hundred tons burthen and upwards, the owners having many of different classes, and being at the same time the proprietors of lands and houses*.

* In the beginning of the summer of 1819, upon an excursion from Zante to Ithaca, the author was singularly amused by an extraordinary character, a native of the island. He owned a little boat denominated Caichio, of about eight or ten tons, rigged out, perhaps in the same manner as that which Ulysses built in four days,

They also find employment upon the continent in the island of Calypso, with bundles of vine twigs lashed along the gunnel

" Κυματος ειλαε ἑμεν." Od. v. l. 257.

(With yielding osiers fenced to break the force
Of surging waves, and steer the steady course.) POPE.

He was a tall gaunt figure, but well made; he had lost an eye, and there was an expression of deep and undaunted fierceness in his look, which could not but attract attention. He very unceremoniously took up a volume of Homer, with which the author had been amusing himself, and which he had just laid down, and with all the authority of the master in his own boat, expressed in his manner, he demanded, if the author understood the literal Greek: upon being answered in the affirmative, he observed, that most English gentlemen knew it, and that he had accompanied many of them in their tours. He lamented in a most pathetic and manly tone, the degradation of his country, from the state in which it was, in the days described by the author then in his hand, and expressed himself very freely indeed upon the subject of the people of Parga, the surrendry of whose territory to the Turks, was then in agitation. The frankness of his manner brought on a conversation, which was carried on in Italian, and Homer's presence naturally drew us upon the events of the Trojan war, which were discussed with as much interest, as if they were of modern occurrence, but that the Ithacan had much the advantage of the author in recalling them. Of the heroes concerned, Ulysses was naturally his favourite, to whom Achilles was ventured to be opposed in comparison, as being the greater of the two. An imputation of cowardice was here thrown out against the great Achilles, who was said to have concealed himself in woman's clothes to avoid going to the war, until detected by the crafty Ulysses. To this on the other side, was opposed the conduct of Laertiades himself, who to evade the same summons to the war was *equally well known* to have counterfeited madness until detected by Palymedes. Here a parley ensued, and the *amende honorable* was made to the character of both heroes reciprocally, by entering into their exploits during the war.

when their agricultural labour is completed at home. The absentees from the island accounted for in this way, have sometimes amounted by the returns to five hundred. The second cause, for the comparative equalization of property amongst the Ithaçans, originated in the necessity under which the different governments had been placed in former times, of giving encouragement to settlers from the neighbouring islands, in order to keep up the population: a decree exists in the archives of the island, proposing a grant of land to strangers, for the purpose of effecting its repopulation, as it had then become nearly uninhabited. The Ithacans are reckoned expert sailors, and to their excessive fondness for the sea, the evil of emigration is in a great measure to be attributed.

With regard to the antiquity of Ithaca, two points offer themselves for discussion. First, the claim of other islands to the name. Of these one only deserves consideration; but the size and situation of Ataco will, as has been before stated, exclude it from all pretensions with its rival. The second point is, the local evidence existing in support of the conjecture in favour of the modern Thiaki. Little is to be learned from tradition, as the island has been repeatedly deserted by its inhabitants, and as often colonized afresh from the others. It is probable that these *emigrés* carried with them, to the neighbouring islands, their ancient customs and traditions, for which the excessive vanity of the Greeks

would have taught them to preserve the greatest veneration. The proximity of Cephalonia would offer them an asylum, to which it is likely that the greater number would resort; and the facility of transporting themselves and their effects, particularly to Samos, could not have been overlooked, if indeed it did hold out to them those advantages of security and ease, that, it would seem, their own barren and defenceless rock always denied them. Amidst the descendants of the Samians therefore might possibly be found those deficiencies that exist in the records of the destinies of Ithaca: it would appear at least that this view of the matter will remove the objection urged upon the grounds, of the want of all traditional evidence in support of the belief of even the actual existence of such an island as Ithaca.

The general barrenness of the soil is the first circumstance noticed by the stranger on approaching the island. Telemachus's description to Menelaus will at once strike him*.

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* "The coursers, for the champaign sports retain;
That gift our barren rocks will render vain:
Horrid with cliffs, our meagre land allows
Thin herbage for the mountain goat to browse,
But neither mead nor plain supplies, to feed
The sprightly courser, or indulge his speed:
To sea-surrounded realms the Gods assign
Small tract of fertile lawn, the least to mine."

POPE. *Od.* book 4.

The magnificent port that opens to receive him upon the east coast, and by which the island is so deeply indented as to be nearly divided into two, conveys at once an emotion of surprise and delight. If he have the good fortune to arrive while the water in the outer channel is agitated, and have an antipathy to the tossing of a vessel in a rolling sea, the truth and the beauty of Homer's description will be at once acknowledged by him with particular pleasure and satisfaction*.

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* *Od.* b. xiii. line 93 to 115; of which passage, the introduction here of Pope's translation can require no apology.—

Now plac'd in order, the Phœacian train,
Their cables loose, and launch into the main:
At once they bend, and strike their equal oars,
And leave the sinking hills and lessening shores.
While on the deck the chief in silence lies,
And pleasing slumbers steal upon his eyes.
As fiery coursers in the rapid race,
Urg'd by fierce drivers through the dusty space,
Toss their high heads, and scour along the plain,
So mounts the bounding vessel o'er the main.
Back to the stern the parted billows flow,
And the black ocean foams and roars below.
Thus with spread sails the winged galley flies,
Less swift an eagle cuts the liquid skies;
Divine Ulysses was her sacred load,
A man, in wisdom equal to a God!
Much danger, long and mighty toils he bore,
In storms by sea, and combats on the shore:
All which soft sleep now banish'd from his breast,
Wrapt in a pleasing, deep, and death-like rest.

Previously to entering the inner harbour, which is a recess off the great port Molo upon the left hand side, a little bay with an insulated rock in front presents itself, called the bay of Dexia. It is usually visited from town by a short walk round the curve of the beach; or by taking a boat, if the visitor mean to extend his excursion further. This interesting spot

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But when the morning-star with early ray,
Flam'd in the front of heav'n and promis'd day;
Like distant clouds the mariner descries,
Fair Ithaca's emerging hills arise.
Far from the town a spacious port appears
Sacred to Phorcys' pow'r whose name it bears;
Two craggy rocks projecting to the main,
The roaring winds' tempestuous rage restrain;
Within, the waves in softer murmurs glide,
And ships secure, without their hawsers ride.
High at the head a branching olive grows
And crowns the pointed cliff with shady boughs.
Beneath, a gloomy grotto's cool recess
Delights the Nereids of the neighbouring seas,
Where bowls and urns were form'd of living stone,
And massy beams in native marble shone;
On which the labours of the nymphs were rolled
Their webs divine of purple mix'd with gold.
Within the cave the clustering bees attend
Their waxen works, or from the roof depend.
Perpetual waters o'er the pavement glide;
Two marble doors unfold on either side;
Sacred the south, by which the Gods descend
But mortals enter at the northern end.
Thither they bent and haul'd their ship to land,
(The crooked keel divides the yellow sand.)
Ulysses sleeping on his couch they bore,
And gently plac'd him on the rocky shore."

is of a semicircular shape, it is edged by a silver margin of lime-stone pebbles, behind which is a little plain, sown with green corn and flax: the plain is encompassed by rocks, and nothing can exceed the beauty of the verdure creeping through the rocky crevices, with the profusion of wild flowers that spring up in every sunny spot where they can take root. The bees seem to occupy the place as of ancient right: in our excursion we were actually pursued by a noisy swarm, which were in quest of some favourable chink to colonize in. In such a spot one might well fancy the "Nereids to love to dwell." The shore is very shelving, and if a boat were urged by strong rowers, no description could apply so well as that of the arrival of the Phœacian boat in the Odyssey. At the northern angle of the bay of Dexia are the remains of an immense cave, with the marks of the chisel still existing in the face of the rock: the roof has been destroyed, for the purpose of appropriating the stones for building at Vathi. This sacrilegious act has been committed within these few years, by which has been destroyed, certainly, one of the most interesting and romantic grottoes that existed. Part of the southern entrance, which according to Homer, was set apart for the Gods, is still to be seen, and the site of that from the north, which was torn away probably with the roof in blasting the rock, may be readily supplied by fancy. At this latter, which was only open to the unhallowed steps of mortals, we most reverently took up our position: The dark deep blue water reposed in the little silent

bay without motion, although a brisk northerly breeze had curled the surface of the outer harbour, and here indeed a boat might be said to ride in security without a single mooring. One might figure to himself Minerva dissipating the mist from before the eyes of Ulysses, and pointing out to him Neritos, with the olive, and every other endearing object, so soon as the delusion had vanished which before had wrapped up his senses. The cave was composed of large stratified masses of rock in a tabular form, with a dip nearly perpendicular to the horizon: this may have given to the poet the idea of the long stony looms*.

In the rear of Vathi at the south side is a valley which runs from the southward and westward towards the city; it is one of those few spots in the island which are only capable of cultivation, and is accordingly covered with currants, vines, corn, and flax, and every other production that the island yields. Ancient sarcophagi are found scattered through the vineyards. The remains of a very remarkable one exist at about an hour's walk towards the sea, passing the village of Cannellata. This ruin consists of a flight of steps, cut in the solid rock, and leading to a little elevated platform, in which are the traces of several stone tombs, which have long since shared the fate of their original tenants. In

* Ἐν δ' ἴστοὶ λίθοι πεπίμπκεες. *Od.* b. 13. l. 107.
For translation, vide thirty-sixth line of the last quotation from Pope.

the bottom of this valley the winter torrent has worn a deep, sharp, and rugged channel, in some places exceeding ten feet in depth, on its way to empty itself into the harbour of Vathi. Might this exceedingly rough water-course have given the name to port Reithros, in which the vessel of Mentes, king of the Teleboæ, lay? The etymology of the word implies some such meaning, being derived from ῥέω to flow, and θροος, tumultuous noise.—The situation of the port agrees well with that of port Reithros of Homer; it was at a distance from the city, under mount Neios, which is assumed to be the present mount Stephanos, and would well suit the design of such a visitor as Mentes, who merely touches here upon his way to Temesis, his object not being apparently to traffic with the Ithacans.

Korax and the fountain of Arethusa are situated at the south-eastern extremity of the island, at about two hour's walk from Vathi. The road leading to it is extremely rough, from the hard, rugged, and pointed form of the rocks; so much so, that it is customary to take a boat and to proceed thither by sea. Homer more than once alludes to the difficulty of the way between the fountain and the city*, and in book 17. line 195. Ulysses very wisely asks Eumeus for a stick. I should strongly recommend to every tourist who undertakes the journey, to

* Αυτὰρ ὁ εκ λίμνης ωροσεβη τρηχειαν ἀταρπὸν. *Od.* b. 14. l. 1.
Δὸς δέ μοι εἴ ποθί τοί ῥόπαλον τετμημενον ἐστίν,
Σκηρίπτεσθ' ἰθυσὴ φατ' ἀρίφαλὶ ἔμμεναι ὁδόν. *Od.* b. 17. l. 196-6.

follow the example of the great "overturner of cities" and to use the same assistance. Korax is a very beautiful white limestone cliff, fronting the sea upon the south-eastern coast. Without much effort of the imagination one might fancy it to resemble the figure of a crow with his wings extended. It is quite perpendicular, forming a dizzy precipice of, perhaps eighty feet in height; from the centre issues a mountain torrent during the rains, the addition of which at such seasons, must render the scene magnificent indeed. Two convex banks of earth incline from the base of each flank of the precipice, and unite so as to form a deep ravine between them; their swelling sides as they approach towards the ravine, which descends again to the sea, are covered with arbutus, mastic, myrtle, and other fragrant evergreen shrubs. Half way down the dell formed by their union, springs the lovely fountain of Arethusa, where still the herds lead their animals to water. There are several natural caves under the northern flank of the precipice, which are made use of by these poor people as dwellings, and afford them, at least ample shelter from the northern blast. The land above the cliff is level to a considerable extent, and a little beyond the verge of the precipice, upon the left hand side of the bed of the torrent, is a rock which is hollowed out by nature in a very singular manner. It is broad and flat, with irregular troughs of about six or eight feet in length, and varying in depth from three to five feet. These are made use of by the herdsmen, instead of

pens or folds for their goats, swine, and other small animals; for this purpose they are admirably well adapted; a very simple contrivance, the addition of a roof, or blocking up the entrance where they require it, will convert them into sties or stalls, to which use these natural excavations are constantly applied here as well as in other parts of the island. There may be from thirty to fifty of these here together, and they have so much the appearance of being formed by art, that they are often mistaken by travellers for worn ancient sarcophagi, which they very much resemble. It is a curious coincidence that the natives make use of the place nearly after the manner that Eumeus is described to have done in the Odyssey. One cannot avoid conjecturing that this singular structure may have given rise to Homer's idea of the stalls of Eumeus.

The singular beauty of the place, added to the situation agreeing in every circumstance of locality with Homer's Korax and fountain of Arethusa, afford striking evidence of the identity of modern Thiaki and the ancient Ithaca.

Pursuing the excursion to the northward of Ithaca, the ruin commonly called Homer's school, but upon what grounds it is difficult to conjecture, is found at the northern extremity of the island. The road leading to it being exceedingly rough, it is usual for visitors to take a boat to Mavronà upon the eastern coast, and to return overland along the western

coast by Leiki. The squalls from the mountains at each side of the great port are very sudden and changeable; they are sometimes even violent. The swell too that one has to encounter in the channel between the promontory of Leucadia and Ithaca is very uncomfortable in an open boat: however, with a fair wind it is an expeditious route and much preferable to the road, if it be not the traveller's intention to undertake the arduous task of climbing mount Neritos also upon the same day. Proceeding then along the eastern coast by sea, the pretty little village of Chione first opens to view through the mouth of a small harbour, which is seen retiring into the land. It consists of one hundred houses, all built of stone. The fresh green of the orange and lemon forms an exquisite relief to the parched tint of the mountain, which is seen rising in the back ground: the venerable Neritos towering above in all his majesty of age. We look in vain however for his waving woods, to reconcile us to the epithet (εἰνοσίφυλλον) so constantly applied by Homer: the lapse of nearly thirty ages has at length bereft him of all his youthful locks, and nothing is now to be seen but the gray limestone checquering the arid and scanty vegetation upon his sun burnt brow.

There are a few other picturesque villages scattered along the coast to the northward of Chione; from one of these, Mavronà, at about an hour's walk, is Homer's school. It is the remains, probably of

a little temple, erected upon an eminence, which overlooks the bay of Asphalles. The architecture is of a stile which precludes all pretensions to an age so remote as that in which the walls at Aito were constructed: the former consisting of oblong square masses of stone, laid upon each other without cement, but in regular horizontal courses and perpendicular joints; two under stones being covered at the joining, by the middle of the one directly above. This is of the same character with the ancient building at Santa Maura, near the water course (plate I.) A stone was lately dug up in the little garden adjoining this ruin, a sketch of which is annexed, (plate VIII. fig. 2.) It probably belonged to the cornice of the entablature, but it does not appear, from this specimen, that the building was of any regular order: the ornament in the angle would seem to represent a cluster of eggs, or olives, over a cone in demi relief; and shews it to have been of an age much later than even that of Pericles.

At the northern extremity, between port Friches upon the eastern coast, and the bay of Polis to the westward, facing Cephalonia, the island becomes again narrow, forming a neck of high land, upon the ridge of which are scattered the remains of an ancient city, supposed to have been Alalcomene. The buildings of this city, it would appear, were all constructed in the stile of the little temple above described. Rows of plinths of small columns are

found in different places. The whole of this tract, extending along the western coast from Polis to Lefki, is well cultivated, producing corn, wine, and flax. The grape and currant grow in the greatest abundance; and the orange, lemon, almond, and carouba, or locust trees, are scattered along the coast, and interspersed with green patches of corn and flax, some of which hang beautifully upon the craggy cliffs. A thick brushwood of mastic and myrtle overtops the cultivated grounds, interrupted by broken masses of rock, which project from the mountain, and give terrific grandeur to the scenery. In this wild and luxuriant foliage, at the southern extremity of the tract, is concealed the village of Lefki; it consists of about forty-five houses. This spot is rendered highly interesting, by Sir W. Gell's ingeniously supposing it to be that which Homer describes as the garden of Laërtes. The poet would probably have made Ulysses visit old Laërtes first upon his way to the city, if he had imagined him to live at the same side of the island with the dwelling of Eumeus. Admitting then that he lived at the other side of the island, having the city between, no place could answer so well the description of the residence of the old Laërtes. The conjecture is exceedingly happy and tasteful.

A few miles to the southward of Lefki, is the hill of Aito; it is nearly a triangular prism in form, resembling a tumulus with a very acute angle. The walls of the acropolis are to be traced round the

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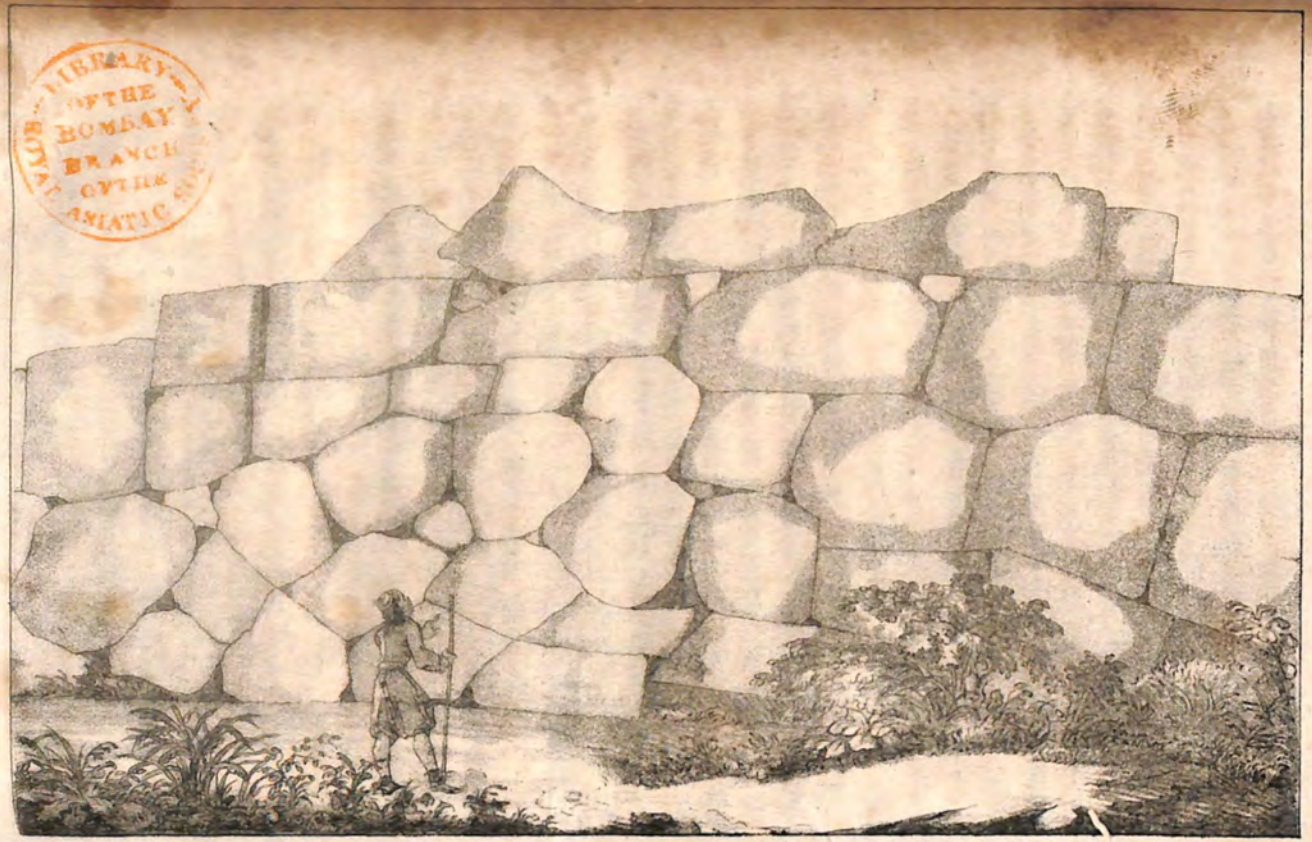

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W. Woodburn

RUINS AT TEKA.

whole of the summit, with the remains of two strong towers at the angles. The northern angle is considerably more elevated than the other, and its summit is bevelled off horizontally, so as to leave a triangular platform, the longest perpendicular of which, running from north to south, (i. e. in the continued direction of the ridge line,) is about fifty paces: the base is about thirty paces.

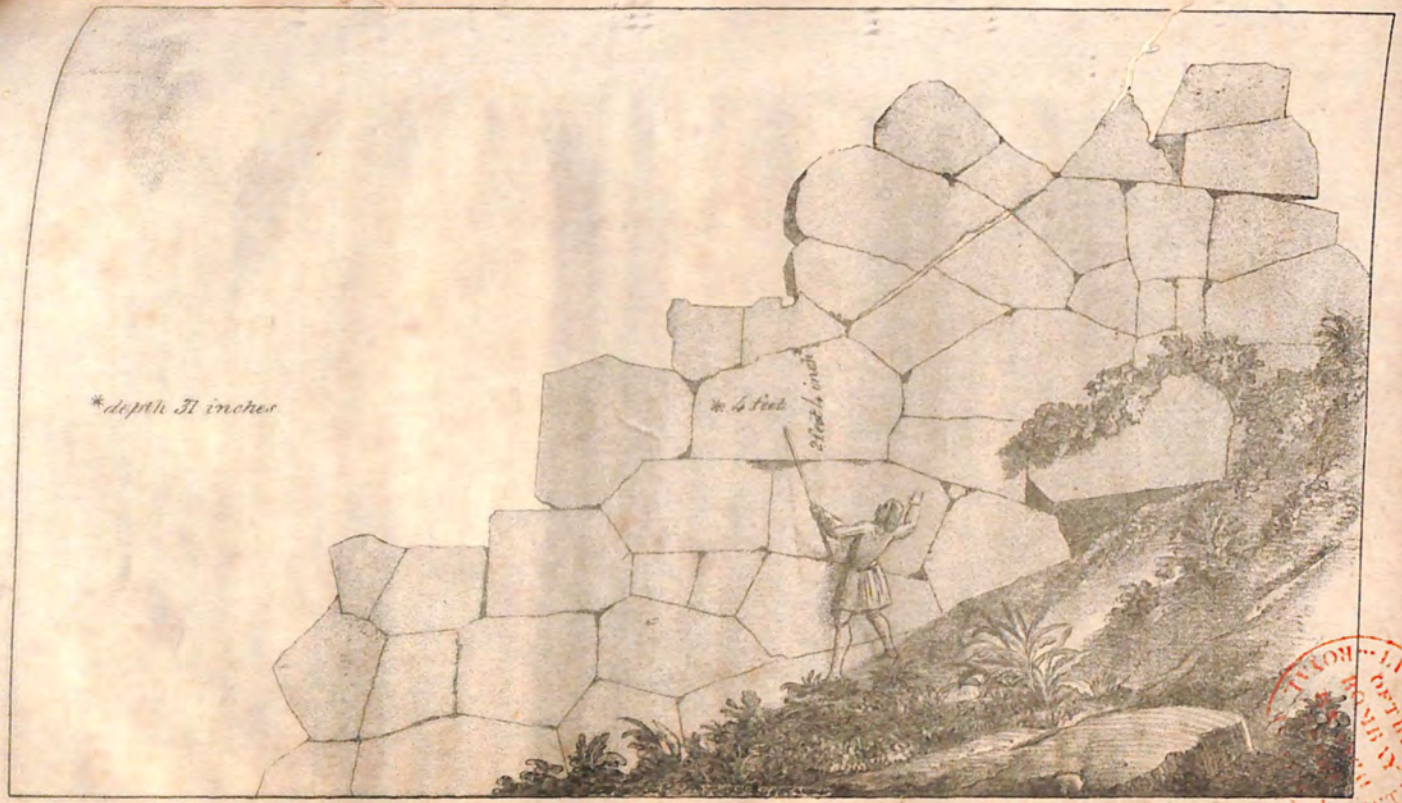
We cannot suppose that the palace, such as it is described by Homer, could have been erected upon this space, much less that it could have included a spacious court, in which the suitors proposed to exercise the bow of Ulysses. The palace must have been situated elsewhere, and not upon the hill where the citadel stood; as no other spot could be assigned for it there excepting the space already indicated.

The interval between the two towers is covered by two parallel walls or curtains, and consists of a ridge of exceedingly rough limestone rock, without a trace of building of any description. This space might readily have sheltered the rough soldiery that defended it from the enemy, but could have been applicable to no other use whatsoever. The eastern face of the hill is intersected by several walls*, some of which run parallel with the citadel

* Plate IV. represents a portion of the citadel wall, and plate V. a portion of the descending walls.

wall, and others descend the hill perpendicularly to those. This mode of defence, added to the steepness of the face of the hill, rendered the place very strong. The town was probably built in the square compartments made by the intersections of these walls, and was chiefly situated under the northern tower. At the southern extremity is the cemetery. Near the latter is a spring, supposed to have been the chief source from whence the citizens were supplied with water. Of this, strange stories are told by the natives, how a traveller by calculating a certain number of paces from the citadel, predicted, that upon digging, water should be found there. The well however exists, whenever or by what means its site was discovered. Nearly the whole of the tombs have been excavated and pillaged. It is said that many valuable articles were found and melted down, or otherwise sacrificed to the avarice or the ignorance of the discoverer; a fate that is likely to await many other valuable pieces of antiquity that may lie buried in these islands. The town situated as above described, was not perhaps to be equalled in the difficulties of its approach, and other inconveniences (as to us they would appear to be) of situation, marking, together with the structure of the walls, the turbulence and insecurity of those remote and warlike ages.

From the southern extremity of Mount Arito, commencing at the spring and cemetery, a valley



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RUIN AT ITHACA.

runs down between it and Stephanos, or Neios, through the bottom of which a little rivulet flows to the sea. Here was probably the fountain of Ithacus*, which would thus correspond in situation with that at which Ulysses and Eumeus met the insolent Melanthius on their way to the city.

Sir W. Gell's description of the palace is evidently a paraphrase of the text of Homer, no trace of any thing of the kind being to be found here, which, if the traveller expects to meet with, although there is much else to gratify his curiosity, he will be greatly disappointed. Admitting that the great hero of the Odyssey, who also made so conspicuous a figure in the Iliad during the war, did occupy this post, of which the historical and topographical evidence appear not to admit of a doubt; it will be found to have been admirably well adapted to the character of the times in which he lived: it was secure against any surprise from an enemy, by its insulated and elevated position, occupying the top of a hill in the centre of the island, commanding on one side a most excellent harbour, and a roadsted (ὀπιζαίτο) at the other, facing the bay of Samos. The city of Samos,

* Where silver alders, in high arches twin'd
Drink the cool stream and tremble to the wind.
Beneath, sequester'd to the nymphs is seen
A mossy altar, deep embower'd in green;
Where constant vows by travellers are paid,
And holy horrors solemnize the shade.

Pope, *Od.* b. 17. l. 240.

probably the most considerable in his dominions, was in full view; and at a short distance, even to this day, the ferry between it and Ithaca exists at this spot.

It may not be altogether uninteresting to sum up the evidence in favour of the identity of Thiaki and Ithaca. Little stress will be laid upon the close resemblance in name, as the modern appellation may be a corruption of the old, arbitrarily imposed and not traditional. The voyage of Telemachus corresponds with this supposition exceedingly well in every circumstance of time and place. Telemachus starts from Ithaca with a fair, westerly wind, at sunset, and arrives at Pylos the following morning at sun-rise. He remains at Pylos the second day, and starts for Lacedæmon on the third. He rests that night at Pheræ, at the house of Diocles the son of Ortilochus, who was the son of Alpheus, (the river upon which probably Pheræ was built.) He arrives at Lacedæmon upon the night of the fourth day, where he remains the following, (fifth day,) and upon the sixth, he starts in the morning, (in the 15th book,) on his return to Ithaca. He arrives at Pheræ again on the night of the sixth day; the seventh at Pylos; but instead of returning to the house of Nestor, he prevails upon his young friend Pisistratus, to drive him in his chariot directly to the boat, where he embarks upon the night of the seventh day. He passes by a second Pheræ, (spelt with ε, the first with η,)

upon the sea coast, then cruises along the coast of Elis of the Epeans, and next, to avoid the ambuscade of the suitors, of which Minerva had advised him, he passes through the "*νήσοίσιν θοῇσίν.*" (sharp islands) probably the Oxiæ, and upon the morning of the eighth day, he lands upon the nearest point of Ithaca, whence he proceeds on foot to the dwelling of Eumeus, where the meeting between him and Ulysses takes place.

If the whole of this journey be traced in the maps, assuming the Triphylian Pylos to be the Pylos of Nestor, all the circumstances of the excursion of Telemachus will appear to have great probability in the narration. Pylos is distant from Ithaca about seventy miles, and the direct distance between it and Lacedæmon is about eighty; Pylos is so situated too, with respect to the sea, being according to Strabo, thirty stadia distant, as to correspond with the feasibility of Telemachus's plan, to leave it on one side upon his return. The town of Ephyra upon the river Selleis may be supposed to correspond with the Pheræ, which he passes by before coasting along Elis. There is yet another town called Aliphera, about midway between Pylos and Lacedæmon, following the Alpheus towards its source, which, if the name be traditional, may be supposed to correspond with the Pheræ of Diocles, the descendant of Alpheus. It is true that Homer might have wafted his young hero by a breath from Minerva, but he choses to be extremely cir-

cumstantial at times in his details, and in his geographical descriptions, is always wonderfully correct. It is not unlikely that he may have gone the same journey himself.

The evidence supplied by the voyage of Ulysses is no less conclusive. * The resemblance of port Molo, to Homer's Phorcynus; the existence of the remains of the cave, which answers to the description of the grotto of the Nereids; the distance from it to the fountain of Arethusa; the beauty of the latter, with the singular cliff; it's secrecy and retirement rendering it so opportune, for the concealment of the father and son, and for the framing and executing their enterprise: above all, the remains of the castle and walls at Aito, however inadequate to answer Homer's description in splendour, yet corresponding so well in point of antiquity and situation, that one might excuse a poet for enlarging a little upon their magnificence. The ruins of the city of Samos existing in full view, which is not a little strengthened by the circumstance of the ferry* affording a frequent and direct communication between the two islands at the present day†. The ingenious conjecture of Sir W. Gell, respecting

* The natural interpretation of the word πορθμὸς a περάω transeo.

† There is a direct communication between Vathi and Argostoli, by this route, viz. over mount Aito, crossing the channel, and proceeding over the mountains of Cephalonia: a courier, or *trajetiere*, as he was termed, in the Venetian dialect, conveys the letters and despatches between the two governments by it; it is the common passage also from island to island.

the garden of Laertes, is not to be overlooked, and the scene itself will furnish another source of amusement to the literary traveller.

The whole island must afford ample enjoyment to those, with whom such objects and the events connected with them have been interesting, from their very boyhood. The importance of the inquiry need not to be dwelt upon; each geographical and topographical fact, furnishing demonstrative proof of the truth of particular records, which, by their collateral evidence, strengthen the great chain of universal history.

CHAPTER IX.

CEPHALONIA.

General configuration of the Island—Aspect. Naturally divided into four portions—one of these supposed to be the Dulichium of Homer—improbability of this portion ever having been insulated.—Gulph of Livadì—Promontory of Argostoli—Mount Enos, or the Black Mountain—Altar of Jupiter Enos, and magnificent view from the top of the mountain.

CEPHALONIA, (Κεφαλληνη,) as it was originally called, derived it's name from Cephalus, who fled hither after the death of his wife Procis, whom he accidentally slew with an arrow: the modern name is Cephalonia. It is the most considerable of the islands in point of size; the circumference is not easily calculated on account of its irregularity of figure, but is generally reckoned to be about one hundred miles; and, being of a more circular figure than Corfù, it contains more land within a less extent of coast. Both islands are reckoned to contain the same number of inhabitants, viz. sixty thousand. This island was once of much greater

ISLAND
of
CEPHALONIA.
Scale of Italian Miles.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Isola Guardiano
Isola di Giove
Castel d'Aiso
Castel S. Giorgio
SAMOS
PALEA
ARGOSTOLI
LIVADO
GOLFO DI LIVADI
PALE DI MELO
ASSOS
ERISSO
TINEA
DIELARO POTAMIANA
RAGHI
BERGI
ACROSAMIA
Isola Dragliu
C. Ismanachia
C. Perra
C. Angina V. Pera
C. Giorgio
C. S. Anastasio
C. Antisamo
C. Mitica
C. Coroni
C. Cresso
C. Gruccardo
C. Chiaraca
C. Alaischia
C. Munda
C. Xi
C. Ducula
C. Gatoi
Pera Caro
Chiarastra
Oriolitae
Convento
Porto
Scala
Samos
Argostoli
Livado
Samoli
Faraklata
Platerata
Giorgata
Pessada
Frangata
Mesapetra
Obligado
Damiana
Mianta
Lixuri
Sutera
Pesse
Ag. Theodoro
Ag. Dionisio
Ag. Giorgio
Ag. Nicolò
Ag. Spiridione
Ag. Gerasimo
Ag. Sosti
Ag. Paraskevi
Ag. Pelagia
Ag. Cosmas
Ag. Thomas
Ag. Barbara
Ag. Kyriaki
Ag. Kosmas
Ag. Thodoro
Ag. Nicolaos
Ag. Georgios
Ag. Sotiros
Ag. Gerasimos
Ag. Sostis
Ag. Pelagias
Ag. Nikolaos
Ag. Theodoros
Ag. Kyriakis
Ag. Kosmas
Ag. Thomas
Ag. Barbaras
Ag. Kyriakis
Ag. Kosmas
Ag. Thodoros
Ag. Nik

importance than it is at present. According to the testimony of Thucydides it contained four cities, Samos, Palæ, Cranii, and Pronos, for which reason it was called Tetrapolon: the ruins of these cities will, as shall hereafter appear, shew, that the importance which was attributed to it in the early ages, was not without foundation.

Cephalonia consists of lime stone hills of secondary formation; it is very mountainous, and there is but little level land capable of high cultivation. The general mountain mass is irregular, the higher parts occupying the centre of the island, and running about north-west, and south-east, through its long diameter. Within about fifteen miles of the south-east extremity, it is suddenly elevated into a very lofty ridge, called Μεγαλόβουνο, (Megalovoono,) or the great mountain; the highest in the Ionian islands, and in this quarter considered to be second in height only to mount Olympus.

This formation gives the general surface a double aspect, one of the faces inclining eastward, and the other towards the west; subject however to the irregularities arising from the various directions of secondary ridges, and the intersections of valleys and deep ravines.

This description applies to nearly the whole of the island, which may yet be divided into four portions, each distinguishable from the other, by

some natural separation; and some of which have, (since the days of Strabo,) given rise to speculations with regard to its original conformation.

The first of the four portions is marked out by the mass of Megalovoono above described, and occupies nearly one third of the whole. It lies towards the south, and is separated from the northern part of the island, comprizing the district of Erisso, by a deep valley, running from the bay of St. Ephemia on the eastern coast, across the island westward, and rendering each part so distinct, as to have given rise to the idea, of the latter having been completely insulated from the former. Some have imagined that this portion corresponded with the Dulichium of Homer*. This appears plausible enough upon a superficial survey; for, the island becomes narrow at this point; the valley intercepted between the two portions, is but little raised above the level of the sea, and the masses themselves are of very different forms, one being ridged, and the other flat and rounded off at the top: to this might be added, that, to this day, a little port in the district of Erisso retains the name of Dulica. There are two ways in which this change may be conceived to have taken place; first by the retreat of the sea, leaving the valley dry; or, secondly by the filling up of the intervening space, with the alluvial matter of the mountain at

* Strabo, Book X, says that Dulichium was one of the Echinades.

each side; or, it might be considered to be the joint effect of both causes.

In whatever way we attempt to account for the hypothesis, however, of the original existence of two separate islands, difficulties present themselves not easily to be surmounted. With regard to the first way of explaining the phenomenon, should it be admitted, it must also follow, that, at the same period Leucadia was similarly insulated, and there would have existed no necessity for the colony of Corinthians undertaking the task of digging a canal between that island and the continent: for, we cannot conceive a depression of the level of the sea, so partial as to affect the one and not the other; and in fact there are other, and much nearer water marks, which shew, that no such change could have taken place since the epocha of the existence of these places: the ruins of Cranii extend to the edge of the water on the plain, indicating that the level of the sea could not have sunk, at least since the erection of those very ancient walls. As to the second mode of explaining it, that the imaginary island has been united to the other by the accumulation of alluvial matter, it is rather unfortunate that, at the north-west extremity, the valley ascends and becomes narrow; the original rock also projects through the soil in many places. Strabo, (book x.,) asserts, that there is an isthmus near the gulph, where the cities Palæ and Cranii are, over which the water occasionally washes from sea to

sea: this however has never been known to occur in modern times.

The third and fourth natural divisions of the island are made by an inlet of the sea, which deeply indents the western coast, and forms there a capacious and excellent harbour. This is called the gulph of Livadi; it nearly insulates the large division upon the north, in which the town of Lixuri is situated. Argostoli lies to the southward of the gulph, upon the eastern face of the hills forming the smaller division.

This inlet forms one of the peculiarities in the topography of Cephalonia, and is thus formed: at the south-west end of the island, a comparatively low and flat range of hills projects for about two miles westwards, and turning at a right angle towards the north, continues in that direction about four miles, becoming more high and ridged as it runs northward, and embracing a portion of the gulph; this forms the peninsula of Livatò. At about twelve miles northwards of the commencement of this range, the land runs out again westward, and wrapping round the extremity of the first range at a wide sweep, forms a basin, into which the extremity of the former projects like a promontory. The shape of the inlet will therefore nearly resemble the letter V, rendering the entrance into, or exit from, the harbour of Argostoli rather difficult, as the promontory is to be doubled going

in and out. These ranges, which project thus from the body of the island, as well as the other high grounds in the neighbourhood of the gulph, were originally a sand deposit. They are incrusted at the top with limestone. The strata of sandstone begin to appear about one third down from the top, and abound in shells and other marine fossils. The formation of carbonate of lime is here very rapid: quarries, where fine landstone has been hewn, not many years since, are covered, in many places, with a coat of limestone.

Upon the neck of the peninsula, formed by the first projection, is the castle of Fort Georgio, situated upon a pinnacle, and well calculated for defence; but, by its remote position from the town and harbour, of little use in affording protection to either, and less adapted for carrying on offensive operations. By much the grandest feature however in the topographical outline of the island, is the Black Mountain*, called, as was before said, and by way of eminence, Megalovoono, a term applied universally by the modern Greeks to their largest mountains. This is the celebrated mount Enos of the ancients, which gave Jupiter one of his many titles. It springs from the extremity of the island

* Pliny, in book IV. c. 12. says that the island of Cephalonia was once called Melæna; and Palmerius in the IVth. book, chap. 24. defends Pliny in this assertion, by a passage from Homer, *Od.* ι. v. 97. It would appear however that Homer means in this passage the continent, and not the island of Cephalonia.

range, attaining an elevation of about four thousand feet; the mass is of a very regular figure, two sharp and well defended ridge lines running down northwards and southwards from the summit, where they meet at an angle, which forms the apex. The upper part of the mountain is clothed with dark forests of pine, which, contrasted with the white limestone, where in a state of decay it has given way either to its own weight, or to the force of the torrents which have deeply indented its sides, assume a deeper shade in the distance, and have given it the name of the black mountain. Throughout the winter it is capped with snow, which usually begins to fall in November, and is not completely dissolved until April. The apex of the mountain is readily discriminated by its position and elevation: it is rounded off at the top for about sixty paces' circuit, and is said to have been chosen for the altar to perform sacrifices to Jupiter Enos, and certainly a more appropriate place could not have been selected. Small pieces of bone, in a fossil state, some of them half burnt, which are supposed to be of the victims offered up in sacrifice, are found upon this point. The ceremony could have been distinctly seen, not only from the other islands in the Ionian sea, but from a great part of the continent of Greece *. From such an elevation,

* In August 1819 a party of officers went to see mount Enos. It was during a festival of Saint Gerasimo, the patron saint, to whom a convent is dedicated, at the foot of the mountain. A beautiful

in the clear weather, and in the serene atmosphere of this climate, the grandeur of the prospect may be well imagined. The most interesting object in the grand panorama exhibited from this point, is the little rocky island of Ithaca, lying as it were at the spectator's feet: both its eastern and western coasts are seen together, and the great port in the former appears over the hill of Aito. A ravine commences from the root of the pinnacle upon which he stands, carrying down with it a little rivulet for several miles, until it opens into a beautiful valley, terminating in the grand curve of the bay of Samos. A second beautiful ravine descends at the back of the former, for several miles through the valley of Rackli to Poros. Towards Zante the fall of the mountain is exceedingly bold and precipitous; a narrow strip of land borders the base upon that side, running between it and the sea, being just sufficient to convey to the mind an impression of the great depth at which it lies below.

The temple of Jupiter Enos is supposed by many to have stood upon this spot; but there are no traces of any building whatsoever, nor indeed would

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scene was accidentally enjoyed by the party, the procession in honour of the Saint having commenced about an hour before daylight, when it was caught in our ascent, at a great depth below: the tolling of the bells and long moving lines of the torches at this hour, and from this point of view, (being directly beneath us at the depth of perhaps a thousand feet) produced an effect indescribably sublime and beautiful.

the assumed area admit of it; and the ridges and other points of the Black Mountain are too contracted, and the sides too steep, to allow of the erecting a temple of the smallest size upon any part of it.

CHAPTER X.

District of Livatò—village Passades—plain of Cranii—Districts of Leò, Catalcò, and Scala—Ruins of an ancient city at Scala—Roman baths and Temple—Doric Temple, probably, of Jupiter Enos—remains of the city said to be seen under water at three miles distance from the shore—District of Rackli—Extraordinary outlet for the waters of the valley at Poros—Mountain lake at Cataracho—Ruins in the valley of Rackli—Plain of Samos—Cyclopean ruins at Samos—Promontory of Mitica—Remarks upon Sir W. Gell's conjecture, that this is the Asteris of Homer.

THE richest and most picturesque parts of Cephalonia are at the southern extremity of the island, and surrounding the base of mount Enos. The soil is formed out of the debris of the mountain, which have been washed down by the rains. The district of Livatò, in which is the town of Argostoli, is wholly independent of this formation, being an original marine or sand deposit, as was before described, and nearly insulated by the gulph, from the body of the island. The faces of the hills in

this district, fronting partly westward, and partly southward to the sea, are covered with vineyards and olives, and a great quantity of currants are produced in the vicinity of the town of Argostoli. A number of beautiful little villages occupy the heights, and the cultivated sides of the hills: of these Pessades is the largest. It faces Zante, and is the usual route for passengers between the two islands, being much more expeditious than that by the port of Argostoli, the entrance into, or exit from which, is generally attended with delay and difficulty. A rich plain is formed in the concave curve of the peninsula, situated between the castle and the southern extremity of the gulph. It produces abundance of the large white and red grapes, but, owing to the rankness and wetness of its bottom, their flavour is not at all esteemed. This is the plain of Cranü. There are excellent roads through the whole of this district.

Part of Livatò, the districts of Iossemia Leò, and Scala lie to the southward, upon the coast facing Zante. The whole of the country along this tract is well cultivated, and the scenery very beautiful: The Black mountain borders it upon the north-east, elevating its lofty top into the clouds, and opposing an impenetrable barrier to the cold winds which blow from the mountains of the Grecian continent, even until late in the spring. The olive tree flourishes here and yields most abundantly; the district of Leò derives its appellation from this circum-

stance, being so named from ελαια (elaïa) the olive. Catoleò is a portion of the same district, which is situated low, and is surrounded with hills, so as to give it the appearance of a cup, with an opening to a little sandy beach, where small boats may be drawn up.

The district of Scala is at the south-eastern extremity of the island, a beautiful and highly interesting spot. The little village of Scala, so named from the houses being built upon a knee of the mountain, one standing above another so as to resemble stairs, is situated upon the higher parts, from whence may be seen, the coast of Elis and the opening of the gulph of Lepanto, with the mountainous coast of Achaia. The village contains about eight hundred inhabitants. The district of Scala is of a triangular shape, constituting the south-east angle of the island, and is situated between the mountain and the sea. The soil is poor, the surface being sandy, upon a stiff clayey bottom. There is but little cultivation, the whole being nearly overrun with fern; the scenery is beautiful, from the profusion of shrubs and evergreens, amongst which, in July, the rhododendron, with its beautiful and brilliant scarlet blossoms, makes a delightful contrast. The remains of an ancient city are marked out here by several ruins; the foundations and scattered fragments of a temple, stone tombs cut in the rocks, and the remains of Roman baths, with a

little temple adjoining, built of brick. The baths are situated upon the left bank of the bed of a little river, now nearly dried up, or dwindled down to a brook, and which has all the appearance at its mouth, of having been once larger; it opened to the northward of Capo St. Anastasio, but its mouth is now choked up with sand. The little chapel belonged to the baths, of which the ruins of about twelve may be traced. Tesselated pavement is found all around, and that of the little chapel is nearly intire, being covered over, and hitherto protected from injury, by the rubbish of the roof and parts of the building which had fallen in: the stream that runs by it, once probably possessed medicinal properties: the baths were built at the side of the glen through which it runs, for the purpose of using the waters. St. Anastasio, however, now monopolizes the whole. At a short distance from the bath is a very large old quarry of tufa, whence the stone was taken for the temple and other parts of the ancient city. The ruins of the stone temple are situated at a place called St. Georgio, close to the beach; it appears to have been of the same kind as that of the temple of Apollo at Capo Ducato, as far as the remains can be compared together; both were built of the same material, tufa; a similar disproportion of the length to the breadth apparently obtained in both; and the position of each, at the southern extremity of either island, is as nearly as possible similar. Might this have been

the temple of Jupiter Enos*? its small size seems to be an objection, although it appears to have been fully as large as the celebrated temple of the Leucadian Apollo; and perhaps the fame of Jupiter Enos was derived more from the grandeur of the mountain than from the magnificence of the temple. It is said that when sacrifices were performed at this temple, the same ceremony was repeated upon the vertex of mount Enos, which could be seen over a great part of the Morea and the Continent of Greece. That a considerable city existed at Scala is certain, from the remains found existing there now, which seem to explain some extraordinary facts, and to give colouring also to some curious assertions made not only by the people of the neighbourhood but by many others, relative to a city said to be sunk under water, about three miles distance from the shore. Many persons affirm that they have passed over the shoal, and have seen under water in the clear weather the foundations of houses or other buildings of cut stone: the shoal is called κακαβω, (Cacavo,) in the language of the country, signifying "the bad cape." Many ships have been lost upon this shoal: one laden with currants ran upon it in the summer of 1819; she was obliged to throw out some of her cargo, and suffered considerable damage from the accident.

* There is a little islet off the south-west angle of the island called by the natives Διος, (Thios,) upon which are said to be ruins of a temple also; this from the name is intitled to some claim for the honour.

The ledge is not laid down in the charts, but country vessels that know the coast, steer at least five miles wide of this point of the island.

Admitting the fact of which, I have rather some doubt*, the phenomenon of the sunken city must be

* The circumstance of a city sunk under water at such a distance from the shore; (viz. about three miles,) believed by all the people of the neighbourhood, and testified by many others, with the facts here stated, seeming to be further borne out by the peculiar dip of the strata, which are hove up northwards to the sea, and terminate here in a very abrupt and lofty cliff, induced the author to make a second excursion to Scala, for the purpose of ascertaining the truth of so extraordinary a fact. A very calm morning was chosen, and a row-boat with a man and boy reached the placa (as it is called) in forty minutes from cape Munda, and proceeding exactly in the direction of Capo Chiarenza upon the Morea, we reached the ledge of rocks, about one hour after sunrise. For ten minutes after leaving the beach, we ran over a shoal consisting of ledges of sandstone, of the same composition as those of the corresponding mountains upon the shore. The bottom could be seen nearly all the way, being only broken occasionally by the blue water. From this to the time of our arrival upon the placa, the bottom was visible by the projection of the ledges, here and there, interrupted by a frightful abyss between them: we sounded over the placa, with a boat hook, at two of the most superficial points, which marked thirteen feet depth of water. Being determined not to conclude hastily concerning the object of our excursion, one hour and a half was devoted to a steady observance of the bottom, while the boat floated over it, impelled backward and forward gently by the oars; no trace of any thing like masonry however could be seen, and probably the opinion has arisen from the appearance of the rocky ledges, forming straight lines at their edges. This information may be at least useful to any who have occasion to pass this way; the natives say, that the ledges occur occasionally for a distance of nearly five miles from the point

explained in one of three ways: first, that it was built upon an island which was sunk by an earthquake; or, secondly, that, it was originally situated upon the island of Cephalonia, from which it was separated by a similar convulsion; or, thirdly, that, having been built upon the extreme point of the island, the intervening soil has been washed away by the water, and possibly the catastrophe was completed by an earthquake, or by the giving way of the earth that supported the foundations. That the whole coast is subject to various and great revolutions is highly probable, from the nature of the substratum that supports the soil; it consists mostly of sandstone and calcareous breccia, which has been washed down from the mountain. The ruins now found upon the land side, are sunk many feet under the soil; the temple of St. Georgio was discovered at a depth of six feet below the surface; and at Samos, the ruins under water are traced to a great distance from the shore.

Proceeding from the southern extremity of the island, and having gained the summit of the last divergent root of mount Enos to the south, by the

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of the island, and accordingly they always give the point a wide sweep here in doubling it. The facts, and opinions also, which have come to the author's knowledge are here stated, in order to assist in establishing the truth; for these submarine ruins, which are so positively asserted by some to exist, may have escaped his search, and should they be discovered by a yet more patient investigation they would, he conceives, exhibit a very extraordinary phenomenon, in natural history.

village of Scala, a most romantic and beautiful valley opens at once upon the view: this is called the district of Rackli, anciently Heraclea, as containing a city or town of that name, or perhaps the valley was simply so called. Three mountain ridges unite so as to shut it up completely, giving it the form of a deep basin: the chief of these is the black mountain upon the south-west; another called Atros is a secondary ridge which runs from Samos along the coast; the third unites the other two, and faces the south-east, it is called Coronus. The whole district is completely surrounded by these lofty ridges: the bottom is very fertile, being flat and extending for about four miles through its longest diameter. The ridge running along the sea-coast is divided by a very singular cleft, which cuts through the mass of the mountain perpendicularly from top to bottom, and furnishes the only exit for the whole of the waters collected in the district, including the torrents that come from the east side of mount Enos. In heavy falls of rain, and when the snows dissolve upon the mountain, the accumulated waters rush with amazing impetuosity through this passage, which derives its name Poros, from this circumstance. The passage is cut so clean through the body of the mountain, the sides are so perpendicular, and the outlines so sharp, that one cannot avoid conjecturing that the whole district of Rackli had been once a deep lake, and that the waters had gradually worked their passage out, or possibly that the latter might have been effected by the labour of

man, for the purpose of appropriating the rich bottom to his use: this indeed is the tradition, or at least, fancy of the inhabitants. Rackli is more productive than Leò and the other districts to the westward of the black mountain; this is said to be on account of the stones intermixed in the soil, which retain the moisture when, in other apparently more fertile spots, it has been expended by the heat. This account is rational enough; added to which, the positive quantity of water is greater, from the abundant sources that supply it. Near the village of Cataracho is a curious reservoir, but common in similar mountainous situations called αβίαθος, (aviathos,) in the language of the country, probably meaning without bottom. This is a very deep basin at the foot of a lofty peak of the mountain; the width does not exceed fifty paces across, but the depth is unknown: some idea may be formed of it however by throwing in a white stone from a height, which will be seen descending for a considerable time. Many superstitious notions are entertained concerning this lake; it is supposed that no animal escapes death that falls into it, and that no part of the body ever appears afterwards; also, that the little brook which flows from it is not increased by the winter rains, nor diminished by the summer heat: a very unusual circumstance in mountain brooks, and particularly in these countries. However, these mysterious properties are easily accounted for by the steepness of its sides, and the depth of its bottom; rendering it impossible

for an animal to extricate himself when once fallen in; but little of the winter rains, go to feed it, and its sources are so deep, that the summer heats cannot reach them. The reservoir has one incalculable advantage however in this country, that it gives rise to a perennial brook, which in its course to the sea turns fourteen little water mills: these in the dry weather, and when calms prevail, so as to render the windmills useless, and almost to threaten the island with famine, continue to work, and supply the people not only of Cephalonia but Ithaca with flour. Besides the utility of this little stream, nothing can be more beautiful and romantic than the entangled dell that conducts it in its wandering busy course to the sea. A thick cover shades its banks composed of mastic, myrtle and wild olive; the bitter laurel, (πικροδαφνη,) as it is called by the natives, grows here in luxuriance, and the broad plane tree waves its golden branches over the brook in wild magnificence. The copse abounds with game in winter; abundance of woodcocks, with hares, partridges, and snipe, afford excellent sport; it is about four hours' ride from Argostoli. The black mountain at this side, exhibits a very bare aspect; a large quantity of the timber having been burnt in the last year of the Venetian government, some say by accident, others affirm that it was done designedly, as, in the following season the ground was sown with barley, which is said to have produced sixty fold! and so great was the productiveness, that, as our informant stated, a spontaneous

crop arose in the second season, yielding again twenty fold! Bones of serpents of a prodigious size, are said to have been found after the conflagration. So rich a plain as Rackli could not have escaped the enterprizing spirit of the Peloponnesians in the time of colonizing; accordingly traces of ancient buildings are to be found in every part; and square stones of immense size are scattered through the valley, many sunk to a great depth in the soil. The remains of a strong citadel are also found upon one of the peaks above the village of Coronus, belonging to the old city Pronos*. This ruin resembles all the other ancient fortresses in the islands in position, being surrounded by a cyclopean wall, and containing within, three or four cisterns cut in the rock.

The ridge of Atros, which, as was before described, runs along the sea coast from Samos, shutting out the district of Rackli from the sea, includes also another mountainous and barren district, between it and mount Enos, named Pirgi; to the northward of which again, lies the rich valley of Samos, and the most remarkable and interesting of any in the island. Behind the beautiful circular

* Philip of Macedon arriving from the Morea first landed here; but finding that the castle of Pronos could not stand a siege, in case of his having to defend himself there, and further, that it was insufficient to hold his army, he advanced to the city of Palæ: he invested this city and breached the walls, but was subsequently forced to raise the siege. *Vide* POLYBIUS, beginning of the fifth book.

bay of Samos, this rich and cultivated plain extends for about eight miles between the mountain and the sea, gradually sloping down to the beach. More than two miliaria of corn are produced here; and of course so rich a spot, and one so well calculated for commercial as well as agricultural purposes, could not have been overlooked by the enterprizing people of Corinth, who very speedily established a colony, and built a city, of which the ruins at the present day, declare at once its strength and opulence. The city lay at the southern horn of the bay, directly in front of the hill of Aito, in Ithaca, upon which the ruins of Ulysses's castle stand. A great many of the foundations of the buildings of Samos are now seen under water, and many are found upon the rising grounds adjoining. There are two very remarkable hills, which are nearly of a conical shape, situated between the beach and the great mountain mass that extends to the right of the bay: upon the top of each of these are the walls of a powerful acropolis, and their sides and bases are covered with ruins of cyclopic. They are divided from each other by a deep ravine, which also separates them from the mountain behind.

The southern acropolis was by far the most considerable in size, position, and the strength of its walls. The valour of the Roman soldier, who under Fulvius had to encounter an enemy over his head, in ascending the acclivity upon which the castle stood, was not to be subdued. The whole of Livy's

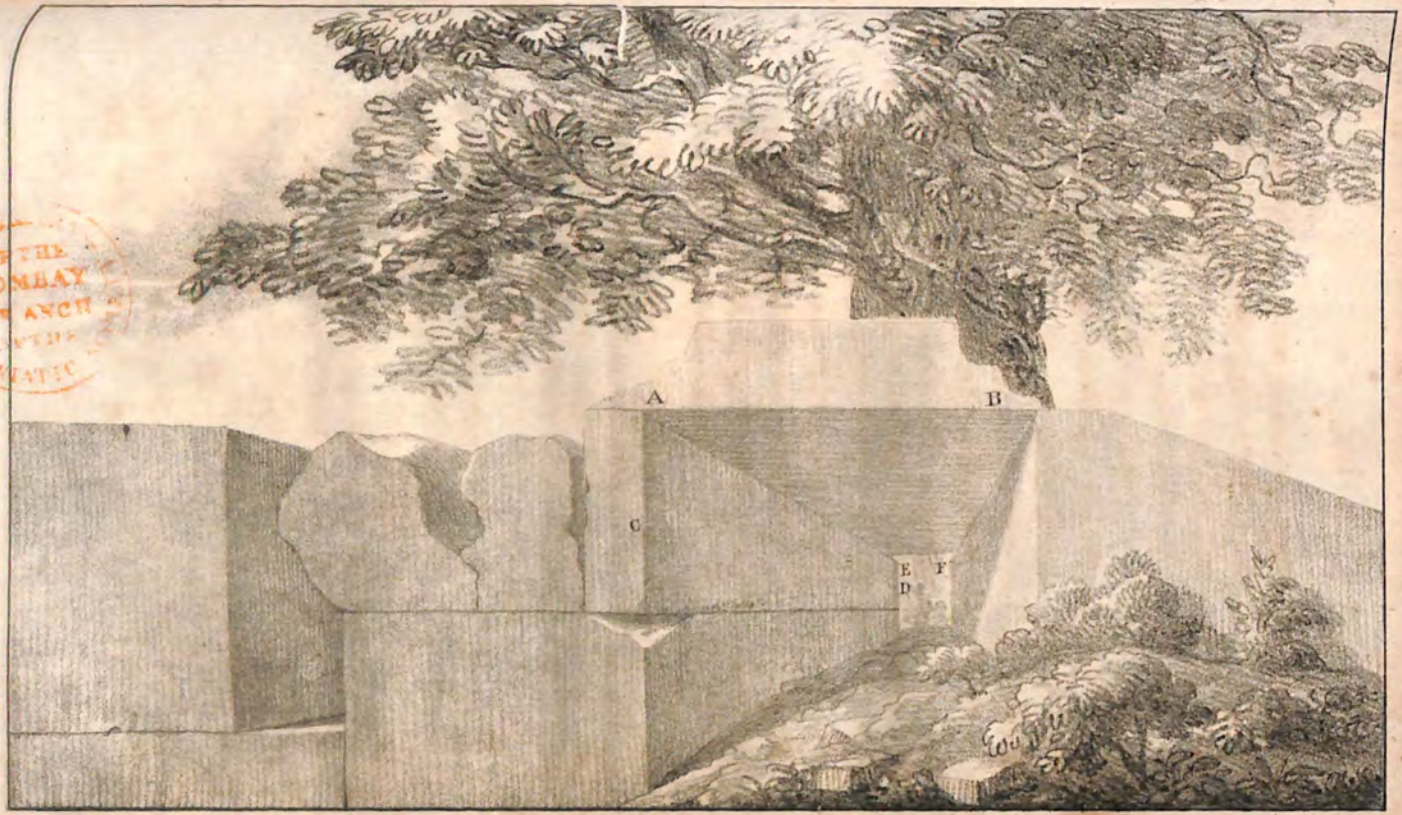
description of the siege and capture of this place, corresponds so accurately with every object in the scenery, as it now presents itself to the traveller, as to be extremely interesting.

The Samians, according to Livy (book 38. c. 28.) held out against the Romans under M. Fulvius for four months. "Quatuor menses obsidionem Same sustinuit, quum ex paucis quotidie aliqui eorum caderent, aut vulnerarentur; et qui superarent, fessi et corporibus, et animis essent; Romani nocte per arcem, quam Cyatidem vocant, (nam urbs, in mare devexa, in occidentem vergit) muro superato, in forum supervenerunt. Samæi, postquam captam urbis partem ab hostibus senserunt, cum conjugibus ac liberis in majorem refugerunt arcem, inde postero die dediti, direpta urbe, sub corona omnes venerunt."

The greater part of the cyclopean wall surrounding the apex of the hill is yet to be traced; the ruins are of a much superior style of building to others of the same description, and probably of the same era; the stones are mostly squared and laid in courses, and perpendicular joints, as uniformly as buildings of the present day, which would seem to imply that they are of later date, or that, in those ages, the Greeks used the regular masonry, but did not adopt it in all places, perhaps, on account of the great labour and expense attending such works: hence, possibly may be accounted for, the different descriptions of building, not only in the same city, but in the same wall.

These walls are all of the most massive construction. In the eastern face of the southern acropolis a stone passage and gateway, with the channel for a portcullis, remain nearly perfect *. In Plate VII. is a representation of a portion of a wall of the same acropolis to the north-west: this line defended the approach by the ravine which separates the conical hill, upon which the acropolis is built, from the mountain at the land side; and the particular portion, represented in the sketch, was constructed with those remarkable long stones, in order that the wall might project over the precipice, to hinder an assailant from making his way round the extremity. The second fortress appears to have been subservient to the other just now described. A Venetian convent had been erected upon the foundations of a temple, or other large building contained within it, in the year 1633, as appears from an inscription over the gate: the modern superstructure is now rapidly mouldering away, while the old wall still bids defiance to the hand of time. Two old monks inhabit this place, one upwards of ninety, and the other seventy years of age; the latter, Papa Spiro Giacomo Zervò, is an intelligent old man: he is acquainted with the old Greek, and has read Homer: he recollects his father, and the oldest men in his youth, believing the island, now called Thiaki, to have been the island of Ulysses (Odysseps, as he pronounced it). The tradition amongst these people is, that Telemachus removed

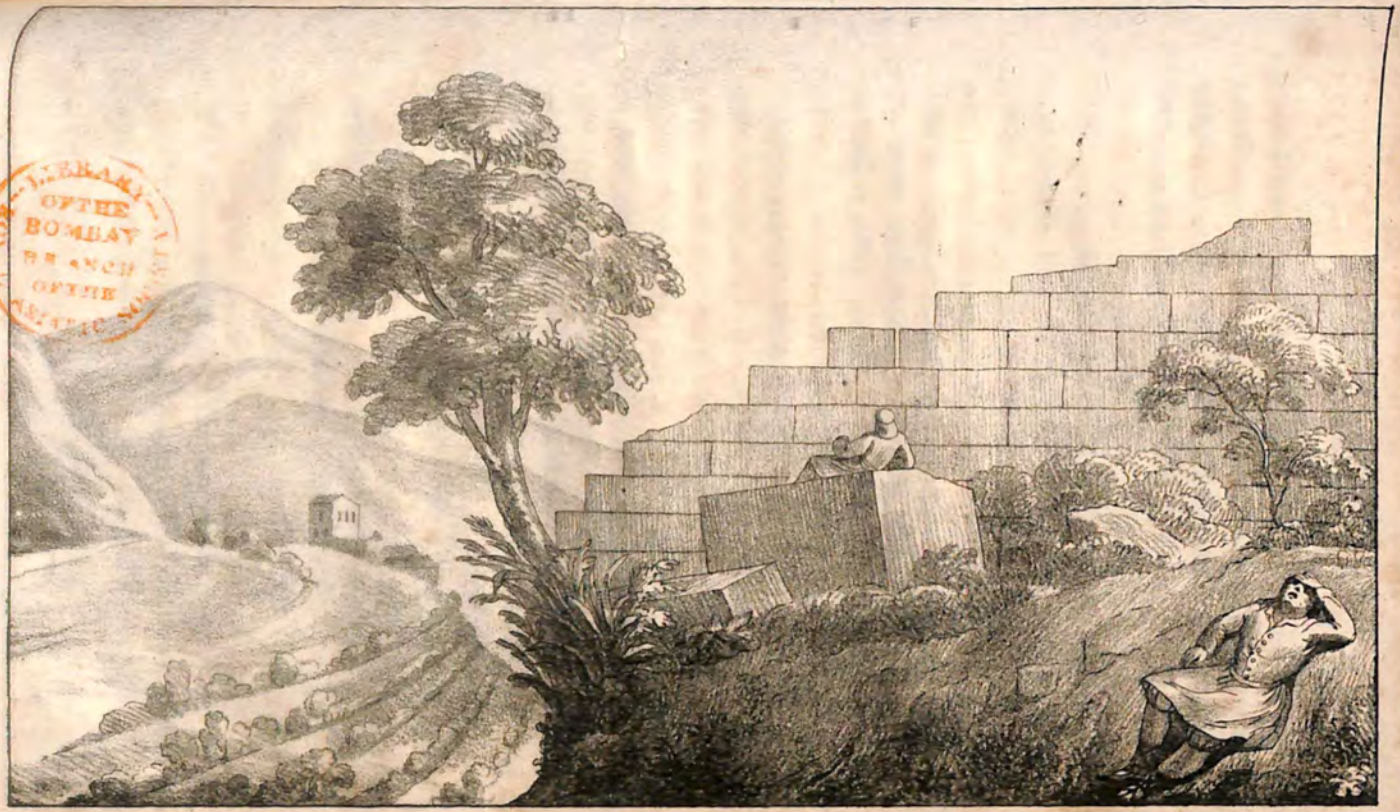
* *Vide* Plate VI.



OF THE
BOMBAY
BRANCH

G. Scharf Lithog. Printed by C. Motte & Co. W. Goodisson del.

RUIN AT SAMOS.



LIBRARY
OF THE
BOMBAY
BRANCH
OF THE
ASIATIC SOCIETY

G. Scharf litho. Printed by C. Motte & Co. W. Goodisson del.

WALL AT SAMOS

from Ithaca after the death of Ulysses, and held his residence at Samos; that, at this period, the city consisted of fourteen thousand houses, and that the Samians had fourteen triremes.

Towards the beach are the foundations of buildings which run for several hundred paces under water. These are all of cut stone, besides which, are several masses of Roman brick, one the ruins of a bath; fragments of tesselated pavement are picked up from under the water in the neighbourhood. Amongst other ruins here, is a line of wall which runs for several hundred paces to the southward of the fishermen's huts, which are now called Samò; this is supposed by the natives to have formed part of a basin in which the Samian gallies were kept. Behind the ruins, and a little higher up the valley, is the cemetery; many of the tombs have been opened, and trinkets of gold and silver, and a metal plate, probably a looking-glass, have been found, but nothing valuable has been as yet discovered. Researches, conducted by people of intelligence, might be rewarded with discoveries here and in other parts of the island, highly interesting to ancient history and literature; but very little encouragement is given to such undertakings, and those who do attempt them are generally wholly unqualified for the task.

To the southward of the acropolis is a promontory which runs out to a considerable distance towards Ithaca, called in the maps, Cape Mitica; from this

projecting point is a view of the coast of Elis, and of the opening of the gulph of Lepanto. This promontory is peculiarly interesting; it has been conjectured by Sir William Gell, that it was formerly insulated, and probably that it might have been the Asteris of Homer. Sir William offers another ingenious conjecture with regard to the signification of the word, νῆσος, in Homer, which he supposes to be applicable to a promontory, such as the one under consideration, as well as to an island; this seems to be fully borne out by the fact, that to this day the natives call the place το νησὶ (to Nisi), in the language of the country. Palmerius, in book 4. ch. 23. de Ant. Græc. offering a conjecture that Crocyleum was a promontory of Ithaca, attributes the same meaning to νῆσος: thus, Peloponnesus, the peninsula of the Morea, was so called from the word Pelops and nesos. It may be worth mentioning, that there is a very good port at each side the promontory, for small craft, still bringing it to correspond more nearly with the Asteris of Homer. The bay of Samos abounds in fish, particularly with red mullet. A beautiful scene is here often exhibited upon the water, a number of fishing boats being usually employed in the calm weather, when the lights which they use at night to decoy the fish, are reflected over the glassy surface of the bay, in long columns of liquid fire, as it were, to the shore: how delightful the peace and stillness of such a scene, contrasted with the dreadful revolutions and devastations that this unfortunate city must have undergone, in its

storming and plundering by a Roman army, and its subsequent annihilation by an earthquake * !

* The author experienced a slight shock of earthquake about midnight, on the 19th of November, 1819, upon an evening such as is above described, whilst lying in a house close to the beach; the waters of the bay were previously smooth as glass, and in a few minutes after the shock, the surges arose and continued to lash the shore for several hours.

CHAPTER XI.

Towns of Argostoli and Lixuri—Rapid progress in building—Population—Earthquakes—Bridge of Trapano—Ruins of Cranii—Of the cyclopean building in general.

WHEN we turn from contemplating the massive ruins just described, to consider the little defenceless towns and villages that have grown up under other auspices and in other ages, we cannot avoid entering into comparative speculations of their respective inhabitants; in the one, we shall recognise the gigantic efforts of a people, wedded to liberty, to preserve their independence, but we must, at the same time, acknowledge the predominance of an ambitious and restless spirit in their neighbours, by which they were continually harrassed and their security endangered: in the others, weakness and insignificance gladly embrace the aid of foreign protection, to insure to them tranquillity; and the exemption from all energy or exertion.

Argostoli and Lixuri, the only towns now in the island, seemed to have shared the honours and

advantages of a metropolis between them, until the establishing of the courts of justice, of the local government, and offices connected with it, and of the head quarters of the British garrison at Argostoli; since which a new impulse has been given to speculations in building, and the purchase of lands; so that the latter town has more the appearance of activity and stir, than any other in the islands. There are about 5,000 inhabitants here, and the same number in the town of Lixuri; the circumstances above mentioned have, however, drawn away, and still continue to entice, many settlers from Lixuri to Argostoli. The houses are all built of stone and of very solid workmanship, to enable them to withstand the shocks of earthquake, which are very frequent, and occasionally very violent: the better to effect this purpose, the best constructed have iron clamps in various parts of the walls, and generally at each corner is a raised pilaster of cut stone; this and other little architectural ornaments are executed in the Venetian manner. The low and paltry dwellings erected upon the foundations of many others of these palaces, as they are called, give awful memento, to the inmates of these latter stately edifices, of what they may expect from earthquakes. The town consists of one long street, which runs close by the beach; it is tolerably clean and well built. The water is deep, which renders the air pure, excepting during a long prevalence of the Sirocco wind in the hot weather, which, with other inconveniences, carries most offensive

exhalations from the shallow part of the inlet situated to the southward of the town. These proved highly deleterious to the inhabitants and the garrison in the summer of 1815: in that season no less than eighty soldiers out of one company of the 14th regiment were carried off by remittent fever.

A little quadrangle occupies the centre of the town, where the markets are held; this has been lately begun to be flagged with tomb-stones brought from the ruins of Samos: a few letters rudely inscribed may be traced upon some of them, but all now nearly obliterated. A public work of more utility however does great credit to the spirit of the inhabitants, at whose expense it was completed, together with the contributions of other islanders concerned. This is the bridge of Trapano, which crosses the gulph at the southern extremity of Argostoli, affording an excellent road between the town and country, by which the communication is shortened four or five miles, and an almost impracticable mountain road round the lake avoided to the peasants, who have to convey their goods to the market in the city. The walls of the bridge are of cut limestone, and instead of arches, strong planks of oak are thrown across connecting the piers horrizontally, by which a most excellent, wide, and level road is carried over this angle of the lake. The centre is occupied by a little insulated platform, in the middle of which is a pyramid, containing an

inscription in four different languages, one upon each side. The inscription is. "To the Glory of the British nation, the inhabitants of Cephalonia, 1813."

The unlimited authority vested in the military chief, as Capo di Governo, previously to the promulgation of the new constitution, also enabled him to construct some very good roads through this part of the island, all which improvements might have appeared very fine and very necessary in the eye of a soldier, the utility of which may however be very questionable when the ways and means come to be weighed and justified in the calculation of the sober citizen. The question is whether the utility of these public works be answerable to the expense of constructing them, with reference to the individuals, or indeed to the community upon which it was levied. When it is in the power of the executive authority to oblige the poor to work and the rich to pay, almost any thing may be done: when all parties are content under these circumstances, things go on without interruption.

The subserviency of the Greeks, and their vanity, however opposite these two qualities may appear to be, contribute on those occasions to carry them much farther than their public spirit would. The hard grinding systems of the Venetian governors have drilled them up in the former aristocratical government virtue, and as to the other, it is per-

fectly innate. They will readily come into the measures of any government in any island, and no idea of economy, or financial consideration, can set limits to their prodigality in council; but when the decree comes to be carried into effect, and the tax or contribution levied, then is the demur and the difficulty. That useful public work at Santa Maura* is a memorable instance of their duplicity in this respect; no measure was ever more popular, and indeed at the instance of the inhabitants themselves was it undertaken, yet it was set forth as one of the foremost of their grievances at the insurrection in 1819. As to the public works in Cephalonia they were completed before the arrival of Sir Thomas Maitland, and the operation of the new constitution.

At Argostoli is a museum, now the property of a private family, the counterpart of one which had been collected and formed by the celebrated Abbè Fontana at Florence. The family of the Valsamachis got possession of this valuable little collection, considerable additions to which have since been made by Sir Demetrio and Signior Paolo Valsamachi, during their residence in various parts of Europe. The politeness of these gentlemen is sufficiently known to all the English officers and visitors who frequent Argostoli. The mineralogical collection is beautiful, consisting of several hundred specimens,

* The new canal and mole, (vide map,) the former cut through the isthmus and lake, and both begun under Major-General Sir P. Ross's government in that island.

according to the classification and nomenclature of Hauy, both in their rude and polished state; much cannot be said however for the arrangement. The anatomy of the human body is most ingeniously represented in wood, and so contrived, that all the successive layers of muscles of the body may be removed, and the organization of the internal parts displayed. The attitudes and details are copied from Albinus's beautiful tables of Anatomy. There are also some fine wax specimens, one representing a woman in all the different stages of pregnancy. A most masterly one is a bust, said to have been done at the desire of Napoleon, which represents the brain, and gives a beautiful view of that important and intricate part of anatomy, wherein are exposed the various blood vessels and nerves of the neck. There is a great variety of fossils, and a beautiful collection of shells. A small library is added to the whole, containing some of the choicest and rarest editions of the classics, both ancient and modern.

At about two miles distance from Argostoli are the walls of the ancient city of Cranii, occupying the top of a very rough and inaccessible ridge, which projects upon the east angle of the lake or gulph at its southern extremity. A very considerable portion of the butt of the walls still remains, sufficient to trace their circumference throughout. Some of these consist of enormous masses of stone, hewn

and laid together much after the same fashion, with those at Santa Maura and Ithaca.

All the different descriptions of cyclopic are found here, the rougher and more massy specimens occupying the higher parts. The wall which faces the south may be traced for about one thousand five hundred and eight paces, and another looking north-east, extends for about eight hundred: in the latter are very large blocks of stone; at one part they are regularly squared, where they probably formed the casement of a door. Where both walls join, there is a part constructed of masses also nearly square, a sketch of which is given (Plate VIII. fig. 4.) a particularly large stone resting upon two others, which it has nearly forced from under it, is of a pentagon shape, and of the following dimensions: length, eight feet ten inches; depth, five feet two inches; height, six feet seven inches. A second, nearly quadrangular, is eight feet in width, three feet ten inches high, and four inches and a half in thickness. A third enormous block, is thirteen feet five inches in length, three feet three inches in height, and about the same in its greatest depth, which is however irregular. Besides these powerful artificial defences, the situation of the place was at once difficult and dangerous for the assault of an enemy, particularly the ascent to the south wall, which runs along the edge of a precipice its whole length.

ROMAN
BRANCH
OF THE

Fig. 2.

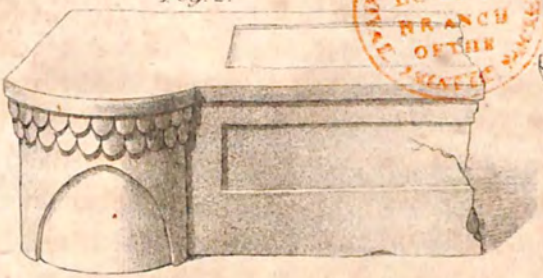


Fig. 3.

Fig. 1.

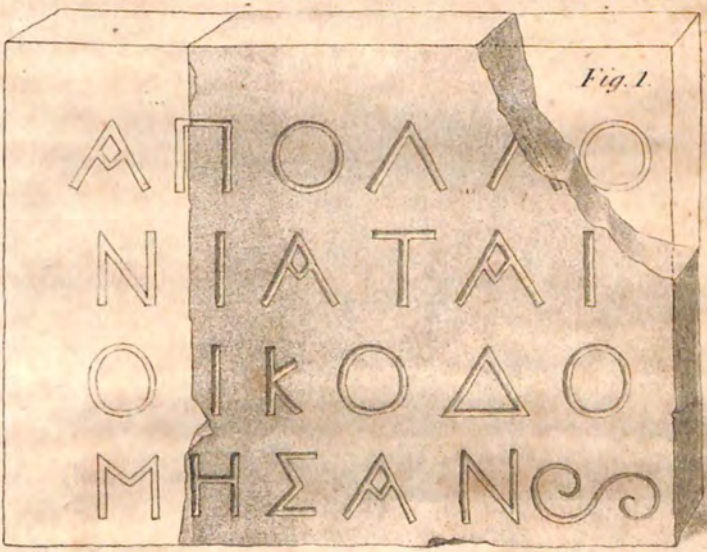
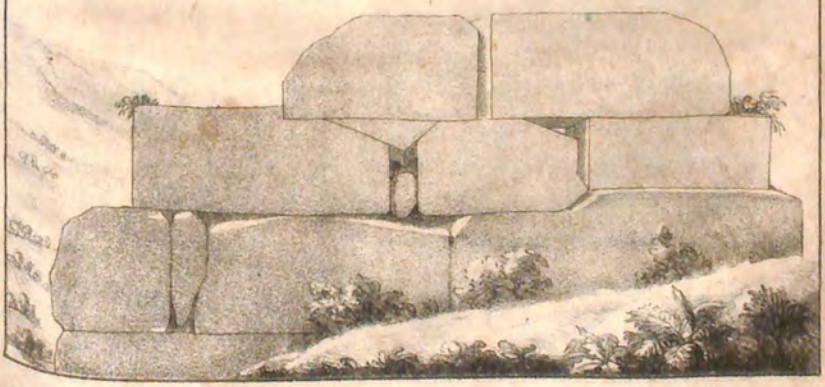


Fig. 4.



Upon the east is a valley opening into the great ravine that divides the main chain of mountains from the lower ridge which borders the lake, and in which are situated the villages of Dillenata and Faraclata. Across this valley a curtain wall is drawn in rear of the city, which formed a singular defence, in addition to the circular city wall, and requires description more in detail. It is constructed partly of squared stones, and partly of polyangular. About one thousand seven hundred and seventy-six paces may be traced across the valley; in it are the remains of twenty-one projecting square towers, each measuring eight paces in front.

The use of this line of defence was to prevent the approach of an enemy upon the rear of the city, by the valley of Dillenata, and Faraclata, which communicated by two passages over the main chain of mountains with Samos, and also allowed of hostile invasion upon the side of Palæ or Lixuri.

Of the ancient city of Palæ, the remains are very inconsiderable, they are situated about a mile to the eastward of the town of Lixuri.

Amongst the ruins in the islands, four different kinds of ancient building are to be traced, all without cement. The first is constructed of large masses of stone of a rough and irregular figure, exhibiting no marks of a cutting instrument, and having their crevices filled with smaller stones.

This is obviously the most simple kind of masonry, and is therefore probably the oldest that was ever used. The walls of this description occupy the highest and most inaccessible places, whether they are actually of an age more remote than those which are usually found in the lower parts of the same ruin, or, that being built upon these situations, where an engine could not be brought to bear upon them, their massiveness was deemed sufficient, without going to the labour and expense of chiselling them, it is not easy to determine. The inhabitants of those places occupied the high and inaccessible parts first, which would lead one to adopt the former; and their being found in the same ruins with the other species, seems to favour the latter conjecture.

A very beautiful specimen of this class exists in the ruins of Aito, in Ithaca, forming part of the eastern face of the citadel wall. Of this a sketch is given (plate IV.) The steepness and difficulty of the approach left the choice of a good distance point out of the question, so that the drawing was taken close to the wall. This magnificent ruin is from fifteen to twenty feet high still, although it is probably above three thousand years old.

This species seems to be the same as that described by Pausanias in speaking of the ruins of Tiryns in the Argolide.

Το δὴ τεῖχος ὅ δὴ μονον τῶν ερειπίων λείπεται, κυκλώπων

μέν ἐστίν ἔργον, πεποιηται δὲ αργῶν λιθων, μέγεθος ἔχων ἕκαστος λιθος ὡς ἀπ' ἀυτῶν μήδ' ἄν αρχὴν κινηθῆναι τον μίκρότατον ὑπο' ξεύγες ἡμίονων. λιθία δὲ ἐνήρμωσται πάλαί ὡς μαλιστα ἀυτῶν ἕκαστον ἁρμονίαν τοῖς μεγάλοις λιθοις εἶναι.

Which may be translated, The wall only remains of these ruins, a work of the Cyclops, it is constructed of rude stones, each of such a size as to require, the smallest of them, a yoke of mules to remove them. Small stones were fitted in formerly to fill up the crevices between each of the large stones.

The word παλαί seems to signify, that in the walls at Tiryns, those small stones had been removed or had fallen out of their places, which is the case also, apparently, with the wall at Ithaca, although many of them remain, as is represented in the sketch.

It will be remarked, that there are some roughly chiselled, or faced stones, intermixed in this mass, as if they were the refuse of the other kinds, and seem almost to decide that this is not older than the others.

The second species consists of stones faced by the chisel, but not squared, and joined together without any other order than attention being had to their exactly fitting each other. These walls are

of great strength, and their joints are exceedingly close, so much so that a penknife cannot be driven into them. The greater part of the ruins in the islands consists of them, a specimen is given in Plate V.

The third species consists of stones which are nearly all squared, and where a near attempt is made to the disposition in horizontal courses, but the perpendicular joints are not regular. An example of this kind is seen in Plate I, * The very old temples appear to have been constructed in this way.

The fourth kind is rarely to be seen amongst these ruins; in which the joinings, horizontal and perpendicular, are exactly observed, and where each upper stone rests upon the two immediately underneath. At the middle acropolis of Leucate, the second and fourth species are found, together with a fifth, consisting of small stones and mortar, intermixed with pieces of Roman tiles, and raised upon the other two; the last superstructure was probably built by the Romans, or possibly by the Venetians. Of the fourth species there is also a curious specimen amongst the ruins of Samos, represented in Plate VI. The stones of which this wall was built are of great length, compared to their height; obviously for the purpose of making them project beyond the

outline of the hill, in order to prevent an enemy from turning round the end, which hangs over a precipice.

CHAPTER XII.

ZANTE.

Jam medio apparet fluctu nemorosa Zacynthos.
Æneid, lib. 3. line 270.

Zante, its position with regard to the other islands—Mountain ridges, and some remarks upon its geological structure—Pitch wells—Plain of Zante—Subject to earthquakes—Violent earthquake of 1821*—Of the phenomena of earthquake in general—City of Zante—Statistical remarks—Ancient inscription.*

ZANTE is situated to the southward of the islands already described. It lies also rather to the westward of a meridian, which may be imagined common to the islands that lie immediately to the northward *. The beauty and fertility of this island

---

* This seems to explain a difficulty† in Homer, where he describes the islands subject to the dominion of Ulysses. The passage is in the 9th book of the *Odyssey*, line 21.

Νικτάω δ' Ιθάκην εὐδείελον· ἐν δ' ὄρος αὐτῇ
Νήριτον, ἰνοσίφυλλον, ἀρίσκοπιαὶ· ἀμφὶ δὲ νῆσοι

† The seeming difficulty is, in Homer's placing the island of Zante so much to the westward.

I. Vromi
Cumbi
Oxocora
Mariès
Plemonaria
S. Leo
C. S. Andrea
Agula
Chiero
Amkili
Lusa
Gur
Orthonies
Volimes
C. S. Giovanni
Faqui
Pagadacha
Calaro
Scultorado
Catastari
Cachiesa
Cartata
Draco
Fiditi
Langadachio
Bugato
Melmado
Masherado
Lagapodo
Litachia
Pirrenda
Musachi
Romiri
I. Maratonisi
S. Demetro
I. S. Nicolò
Cape Schinari
Bay of Catastari
S. Sosti
S. Quirico
Gerachorio
Great
Marsh
Belusio
Bay of Zante
Banaja
Cadino
Castle
I. Peluso
Port
I. S. Giorgio
Crionero
P. Geraca
P. Daria
C. Basilico
ISLAND
of
ZANTE.
Scale of English Miles.
1 1/4 1/2 0 1 2 3 4 5

ROYAL

have been long celebrated; even to a proverb; "Zante, fior di Levante," being an expression met with in all parts of the Mediterranean. I have some doubts as to its superiority, in the former respect, to Leucadia, and in the latter, as far as capability of cultivation goes, to Cephalonia: the one, indeed, is but a matter of taste, the other is a question of judgment. The general rocky appearance of Cephalonia, compared with the delightful green of Zante, might make this assertion appear to be rather extraordinary; but the predominance of gypsum in, at least, the hilly parts of the latter, will readily explain the matter *.

The circumference of Zante is about sixty miles; there is a peculiarity in the form of its surface by which it differs altogether from the other islands: the latter are elevated into masses of limestone hills, and are but little varied with flat or level

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Πολλαὶ ναιετάουσι μάλα σταδὸν ἀλληλῃσι,
Δουλίχιόν τε, Σάμη τε, καὶ ὑλήεσσα Ζάκυνθος·
Αὐτὴ δὲ χθαμαλὴ ἀναπιπτάτη εἰν ἁλὶ κεῖται
Πρὸς ζόφον· αἱ δὲ τ' ἄνευθε πρὸς ἠῶ τ' ἠέλιόν τε
Τρηχεῖ, ἀλλ' ἀγαθὴ κουροτρόφος. ὅτι ἔγωγε
Ἧς γαίης δύναμαί γλυκερώτερον ἄλλο ἰδέσθαι.

No description of Ithaca and the islands in its neighbourhood can be better than this, admitting the explanation of the difficulty as above.

* An accurate analysis of the soils of the cultivated grounds respectively, would determine this point. The author has had an opportunity of analyzing the living rock only. The result of the analysis is given in the Appendix.

land; whereas Zante consists of one extensive plain, which is nearly surrounded by mountains.

The Zante mountains consist of three chains, which are more or less regular: the first, running north and south; the second, north-west and south-east; and the third, east and west, but very irregularly. The first, or great western ridge, is chiefly composed of limestone, occasionally supporting masses of clay and sandstone: strata of gypsum are interspersed throughout in insulated masses, or running in veins, and beautifully crystallized. This great primary chain backs the whole island to the westward, and is further elongated northwards, to a considerable extent beyond the limits of the plain; the northern extremity terminates in a bold headland, called Capo Skinari, opposite to Cephalonia, from which it is distant about ten or twelve miles. The other two ridges are of secondary formation, and of less magnitude, compared with the first. These bound the plain, one almost completely to the eastward, commencing at Capo Skinari, and terminating at Crionerò, which forms the left horn of the bay of Zante: the other, imperfectly, to the southward and eastward, running from Scopò to Capo Chieri, which is the most southern point of the island. Of these two lesser ranges, the former, or eastern, is a line of low sandhills, which are seated upon strata of stiff clay, but which the rich citizens of Zante have adorned with villas, and the industry of the in-

habitants of a number of beautiful villages, thickly scattered upon them, has reclaimed and enriched, the produce of the currant amply rewarding their labour.

The most considerable of these villages is Giarachorio, situated upon the top of the ridge. A little port is found in the interval between the northern extremities of the two first ranges of mountains, called Catastari. The broken edges of the horizontal strata along the line of the eastern range, are beautifully fringed with olive groves: might this woody appearance have given rise to the epithet, "Nemorosa?"

The third mountain range bordering the plain of Zante, commences in the insulated mass of Scopò, which is by much the loftiest in the island; its extremity, called Capo Vasilikà, forms a third point, or cape, to the southward and eastward. The island thus assumes something of a triangular shape, the angles terminating in the points Skinari, Vasilikà or Scopò, and Chieri. Scopò is composed, like the range last described, of sand upon a substratum of clay; its surface is very irregular, being made up of a number of cones which point upwards in various directions: two of these, upon the outline of the mountain, as viewed from the city, have a very singular appearance; they look as if they were hove out of their natural perpendicular position, by some violent convulsion.

Port Chieri, the best bay in the island, is situated at the south-west extremity of this range: it is of a semicircular shape; each horn is flanked by a little island, Peluso on the eastward, and Maratonisi on the south-west. Upon the right hand side of this bay, going in, are beautiful white cliffs of tufa, where the stone is cut for building in the city: the pitch wells are also situated here, which, although their produce is not very valuable, exhibit a great natural curiosity: and as they are mentioned by ancient writers, a description of them may not be deemed uninteresting.

At the bottom of the bay of Chieri is a little marshy plain, lying at the base of the southern extremity of the great range of mountains, and of about a quarter of a mile in extent. A theatre of sand hills surrounds it, richly ornamented with olive and evergreen shrubs. On the right hand side of the bay going in, is a beautiful stratification of sandstone, and the plain of Zante opens here, to the south-east. The soil of this little plain is so marshy as to be wet in the middle of summer, although the substratum appears to be stiff clay, and it gives source to a little brook, which empties its black water at the bottom of the bay. The largest well is distant about five minutes' ride from the beach; its diameter is about three yards, and its depth does not exceed three feet. The water of this well is clear and good, excepting that it has the flavour of tar; a blueish scum floats upon the surface, of about the consis-

tence of honey, and a very bituminous smell issues from it. There are two or three other wells situated more interiorly towards the centre of the plain; they are from one foot and a half to two feet in diameter. One is of profound depth; indeed it is said by the natives, to be unfathomable: the water taken from this last is turbid, opaque, and exceedingly brackish. With regard to the opinion that a lake once occupied the site of the plain, it is sufficiently probable; its present marshy state, warrants the conjecture; so that Herodotus's account was probably not exaggerated, when he said that the largest well was seventy feet diameter.

Much more supernatural properties and agencies are assigned to the pitch wells in our own days: The medicinal virtues of the waters are infinite; one is only surprised that some saint has not already arrogated them to himself; they are thought to prevent earthquakes, serving as a vent for the inflammable matter: the ground is, of course, hollow underneath, resounding when stampt upon, and some individuals and writers assert, that subterraneous bellowings, "mugissemens," are often heard for whole days, particularly before earthquakes. A fact too, which it is heresy to deny, is, that bodies thrown into the unfathomable well make their appearance again, after a time, some miles off at sea. These happen to be so well adjusted in weight and bulk, that their specific gravity exceeds that of the well water only so much, that upon arriving at the com-

munication with the sea, the excess may not render them too heavy to mount again, and float upon the surface. The bitumen is at first observed rising and breaking in bubbles on the surface of the well: it is then very fluid, but soon condenses to the consistence of tar, and afterwards to that of asphaltum. This substance is the same as that which is observed to melt and run during the burning of mineral coal.* In its chemical properties it differs very little from vegetable tar: it is found floating in large quantities upon the Dead Sea, and in other lakes and wells in various parts of Europe. There is so little demand for this article now in commerce, that the wells are neglected: one tenth part only being capable of entering into the composition used for shipping, whereas of the vegetable tar, the proportion is one half, added to the other ingredients.

The best description of the plain of Zante is contained in the travels of a very ingenious and lively Sicilian writer†. This sweet spot is surrounded by

* Mineral coal during its combustion becomes decomposed, and an elastic fluid disengaged, which has been latterly applied to the useful purpose of furnishing light: might not these wells, as the tar is now rejected, be converted into a profitable manufactory of gas.

† EXTRACT FROM SCROFANI.

" Ecco l'amena, la ridente valle del Zante, o a meglio dir' tutto il Zante. O detto che gareggerebbe con quello di Tempe, se non che vi manca un fiume cheto, che lento vi scorra, e la rinfreschi. Le Zampogne de' pastori per animarla, ed i muggiti amorosi delle giovenche, e de' tori, un verde più costante e più vario, che non e quello degli ulivi e delle viti, lo smalto de' fiori il canto degli ucelli

hills, excepting an opening to the south-east, and another to the north-west: it extends between these two openings for about twelve miles in length, with a breadth varying from five to six miles. It is perfectly level to the bases of the hills that encompass it, and a rich green velvet-like carpet is spread over the whole. In the early part of the summer, the exhalations from the currant blossoms, intermixed with the innumerable odours from the flowers of the various aromatic herbs and shrubs with which it abounds, united to the beauty of the scene itself, convey emotions that are not easily described. The villages upon the mountain sides, and villas interspersed through the plain, by their gay variety, add not a little to this delightful effect.

That part of the soil termed the mould, is, contrary to appearance however, scanty; indeed it would seem to be almost wholly artificial, and its accumulation the result of incessant labour; a labour which is, however, amply repaid by the produce of the currant, amounting in some years to six million pounds' weight, exclusive of other productions. The substratum is alluvial clay, of a very refractory nature, intermixed with sand, the whole

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vi manca in fine il riso, il piacere, la cortesia de' villani, le grazie delle contadine. Questa può dunque dirsi ricca, ma non bella: in effetto il sentimento ch' essa vi desta al primo aspetto svanisce, in un momento colla sorpresa che lo produce, eppure questo momento e cosi sensibile che merita bene un viaggio per provarlo."
Viaggio di Scrofani Siciliano in Grecia. Annis, 94, 95. Londra, 1799.

washed down from the surrounding hills and mountains, and forming a bed, which is very little raised above the level of the sea: it is said, that, some centuries ago, the whole was a marsh incapable of cultivation, which is not at all improbable.

The bed of a torrent, which is dry in summer, conveys the waters through the middle of the plain, and empties them into the sea at a little to the southward of the city: the stream crosses the road leading to Scopò, where a single arch is thrown over it.

The climate of Zante does not differ much from that of the other islands; the heat is probably more concentrated and more steady, from its basin-like form, and on account of its greater remoteness from the continental chain of mountains, whereby it escapes much of the atmospherical vicissitudes that Corfù and Leucadia experience for the contrary reason: hence it is better adapted for the maturing and drying of the currants.

Earthquakes are very frequent here; and, as at St^a. Maura and Cephalonia, sometimes very destructive. A tremendous effect of one is pointed out in the huge *avalanche* of earth, which lies under the flag staff fort of the castle. The hill is said to have been rent asunder here, and to have buried the remains of the city of Psophis in its ruins. A deep chasm exists, between the two hills, where

this revulsion is said to have taken place. Such a catastrophe is not at all improbable, the present appearance of the divided masses warrants the credibility of it; and the circumstance of finding the ancient coins of Psophis in the interspace, adds not a little to its probability. It is said that the history of this event is to be found in some archives of the island, which, I have heard an intelligent and respectable native assert he had seen at Paris.

A more recent visitation from this dreadful phenomenon has however occurred very lately, the following account of which is translated from the Corfù paper of the 13th January 1821. "On the night of the 28th of December from eleven 'till twelve o'clock were heard at intervals, sounds like those of wind and rain, without however there being either the one or the other in reality. At a quarter before four on the morning of the 29th an earthquake was felt which shook the whole island violently. The shocks, which lasted for about sixteen seconds, were at first perpendicular, and afterwards they took a horizontal direction, with a vibration so rapid and so violent, that the walls of the strongest houses which had resisted the earthquake of 1791, were demolished. The ruins filled every place, the unfortunate inhabitants were driven from their beds into the streets, and the whole island was threatened with destruction. The melancholy accidents that happened from fear alone augmented the number of victims that suffered

from the crushing of the houses: a poor woman in the agony of her terror precipitated herself with her infant in her arms from a window and was killed upon the spot; another of the 36th regiment in the same manner, although she was not killed, received severe injury. The following morning presented a most sad spectacle. The ruins were then rendered visible, and terror took possession of every countenance, which seemed to invoke the pity of heaven. In the course of the morning various slight shocks were felt; at eleven o'clock was one very sensible, and then came on a violent tempest, accompanied with thunder, lightning, rain, and hail-stones, the latter were prismatic and of the size of pigeon's eggs*. The tempest continued during the day and night, and the tiles of every roof being dislodged, the houses were filled with water. The night was exceedingly dark, being illuminated only by the vivid flashes of lightning, and the unfortunate inhabitants, without refuge amidst the crashing houses and the ruins of their property, felt three or four other shocks, which, though slight, served to keep them in constant alarm, lest another stronger should come, which would probably have reduced to ruins the intire city. A torrent now precipitated itself from the fortress hill, which breaking its banks carried houses and people before it; two of the latter were drowned, and a woman who met with the same

* An officer broke one of these hail stones by dashing it to pieces on the ground, when it emitted a quantity of electric sparks: this fact the author learned from the best authority.

fate was afterwards found in the great square of the city. About midnight, upon the 30th, the shocks appeared gradually to cease. Although the tempest of the 29th was so violent, no accident happened at sea, the earthquake was nevertheless felt most severely on board the ships. It is not yet known if any barometrical or thermometrical observations were made during the great shock. At six o'clock on the evening of the 30th the atmosphere presented a threatening aspect; a long shock was felt but not violent, and at three on the morning of the 31st another, which lasted for thirty seconds, with long waving vibrations. This was followed an hour afterwards by two other slight shocks, which succeeded one another immediately, so that many thought that the earth was in continual motion for three or four hours. No more shocks were felt till three or four o'clock on the morning of the 31st December, when one somewhat strong was succeeded by two slighter, preceded always, each shock, by a sort of crashing, which lasted the whole of the day and night. The weather was rainy and tempestuous till the morning of the 2d instant, and then grew calm. No more shocks were felt to the morning of the 3d, when the person who brought this account left Zante; and he could only observe at two leagues' distance from Zante, that the atmosphere which covered the island was more cloudy than it appeared to be elsewhere."

The official return of damages sustained was as follows. Seventy-nine houses entirely destroyed,

eight hundred and seven houses much damaged, eight persons killed, twenty-nine with wounds and contusions.

With regard to earthquakes, it is a singular fact, that of the very many shocks that occur in these islands, few happen in any two of them at the same moment; and the various accounts received from the continental parts of Greece shew, that these phenomena have little or no relation to each other in point of time. The meteorological journal* kept in the British Military Hospital at Cephalonia, in which are accurately entered all the sensible shocks that occur, was compared with a similar journal kept in the Garrison Hospital at Zante, from March 1st 1818, to July 13th 1820, and it was found, that no single shock affected both islands simultaneously: an interval of more than twenty-four hours, indeed generally of many days, existing between any two shocks, noted as occurring successively in both islands. There were thirty distinct earthquakes registered in the Cephalonia journal during the period. From whence it may be concluded that the cause does not, in general, lie much deeper, or rather, operate much deeper, than the superficial strata in each island. This cause then is, probably, electricity: for it would be almost an absurdity to suppose that each island, and each point†, subject to partial earthquake, had a proper

* *Vide* Appendix C.

† Vaudoncourt says that the inhabitants of the little Island in the

subterraneous mine. To this it may be added that the shocks usually happen, although not always, soon after a heavy fall of rain, when certainly the water cannot have penetrated, at least after the long summer droughts, many feet into the earth. Their being noticed to occur too, mostly in calm weather, when a body of air, in a state of positive, or negative electricity may be supposed to have accumulated over a given surface of earth, seems to give weight to the opinion*. In more extended effects of earthquake; as in the year 1755 †, when the whole of the west of Europe and the north of Africa were shaken at once, we have only to remove the agent to a much deeper field, that is, to a stratum of the earth lying lower than the deepest of the intervening waters of the places affected by the phenomenon; and to suppose a greater extent of the atmosphere to be differently electrified from that stratum: the power of an agent so mighty in

lake at Yanina are obliged to quit it in September, on account of the earthquakes. The lake is very deep. Now the description implies that these violent shocks are partial, otherwise their flying for refuge to the shores of the lake would be useless: in order therefore to conceive that the earthquakes arise from the expansion of gas, we must imagine the little island to be perched upon the apex of a volcanic mine, or what is equally unfortunate for it, to lie just over the route of a volcanic passage.

* Many other atmospherical phenomena are observed at the time of earthquake, as, the appearance of dark clouds hanging over the place, and the remarkable noise attending the shocks, and always preceding them.

† *Vide* Appendix D.

force and extent, no human imagination can set limits to, although it may conceive its existence. Indeed, the earthquake of 1755, can scarcely be accounted for upon the volcanic principle of expansion by rarefied air: the devastation was, in this case, too extensive, as in partial trifling shocks the operation would be too limited, as was above shewn, to be explained by the theory of mines. In smart shocks of earthquake animals are affected in an extraordinary manner; dogs bark, fowls scream, and others shew indications of extreme terror; this fact had been long since noticed: I have witnessed it more than once, but it was at the moment of the concussion, certainly not before it, as some have asserted it to be, concluding that animals have premonitory sensations of the shock. In loud thunder-storms, and in heavy canonadings, they do not evince such fear, as far as I can judge, although, in the former particularly, the lightning added to the explosion must surely make a stronger impression upon their senses: and we cannot suppose that animals are endued with a sense of danger from reflection. The awful sensation produced in the mind of man is acknowledged by all to be independent of, and different from, a mere sense of danger. The fact, that steeples and other points were strongly illuminated at Messina during the great shock of 1783, argues clearly the operation of electricity.

The town of Zante is the best in the Ionian

islands; it is much more regularly built, and appears to much greater advantage than Corfù, occupying the curve of a bay, round which it sweeps for the extent of about two miles; almost every house is visible, having its own particular place in the panoramic view from the water. This singularly pleasing effect is produced by the uniformity of the descent upon which it stands. The many steeples and spires with which it is ornamented, built in the Venetian manner, add considerably to the beauty of the whole, and to a stranger, arrived at anchor in the night, the scene opening at once in the morning, with the busy tolling of bells, and the harbour bustle, excites a sensation indescribably delightful; heightened as it is by the usual cool serenity of the hour, and the reflection, perhaps, of having completed a sea voyage, the pleasure of which those who dislike the sea can best appreciate. The heights are crowded with groves of orange and lemon trees, through which are thickly scattered the beautiful villas of the rich citizens. The bay terminates in the fine mass of mount Scopò upon the left, and the extremity of the castle range upon the right: the castle is built upon a hill that literally overhangs the town, and above floats the British flag over a beautiful scene of richness and repose.

The city presents nothing remarkable in its interior, saving a rich and active population, amounting in August, 1819, according to a census taken by

order of Sir P. Ross, to 15,176 souls. The port would be perfectly open and exposed upon the eastward, were it not for the erection of a fine mole, which was begun a few years since; and is now about to be completed. The Ionian parliament voted a considerable sum at the last session, for this highly useful work, as also for the continuation of an aqueduct from mount Scopò to the city, which had likewise been begun some years ago. Both works are accordingly now carrying on through the exertions of Sir P. Ross, governor of the island. By the completion of the aqueduct, a plentiful supply of excellent fresh spring water will be conveyed to the city from Scopò, a distance of about four miles. The difficulty of procuring that article is at present very great, and the quality of that which is procured in the neighbourhood of the town is exceedingly bad, owing to its passing through the gypsum strata. The number of private houses in the city amounted to three thousand seven hundred and thirty in 1819, and there were sixty-five churches.

A little spot of ground adjoining one of the churches at the south end of the town, had been long known as the English cemetery: it was purchased, and the expenses defrayed by contributions from the consuls, merchants, and other English resident and visitant at Zante. It is situated upon a little bank, at one side of a deep ravine, and is shaded over by cypresses and other evergreens. The

strikingly sombre appearance of this hallowed spot has attracted the notice of foreigners, and, in a British bosom, it was well calculated to excite that sympathy which is due to our unfortunate countrymen, who, however doomed to moulder at a distance from their friends and homes, it is consolatory to think, should find so sweet and consecrated a spot, where their remains may quietly repose together. Amongst many other monuments tastefully executed, some of them above one hundred years old, are those of four British consuls. Alas! of a fresher date is that, whose yet green turf has but just closed over the remains of a young, amiable, and accomplished English lady, who fell a victim to the excessive heat of the summer, and was entombed with her infant in one grave *.

Among the manufactures of Zante are silk camblet, carpeting, coarse pottery, and tiles. These latter are made out of the clay which forms the mass of hill upon which the castle stands; it is of a blueish colour, and possesses a strong detergent quality, like fuller's earth, being used by many for washing floors and coarse furniture. The best soap of the islands is also made at Zante.

From a statistical table, constructed in August, 1819, by order of Sir P. Ross, and to which we have already referred, it appears, that the total

* The lady of Lieutenant-Colonel Gubbins, 75th regiment, in 1820.

population of the island including the city, amounted to 35,074, that of the country being 19,898, and and added to the number before quoted as being in the city. The number of private houses in the country were 5,966. The number of absentees were, from the town, 822; country, 1,087; mariners, country, 362; town, 110.

The agricultural produce of the island in that year was, 40,467 bacile of corn, 2,311 bacile of barley, agrumi 1,271,000, cotton 8,194 lb., flax 9,770 lb., wool 45,404 lb., cheese made of goats' milk 76,089, honey 58,820, wine 48,500, and uva passa (currants) 6,041,860 lb., a biennial produce of oil was 25,543 barrels; annual, of salt 31,890 bacile, liquorice-root 300,000 lb.; of live stock there were 11,709 sheep, and 16,021 goats.

The Zante women are still more closely confined than those of the other islands. Most of the windows are defended by a thick lattice work, which projects into the street, giving them more the appearance of so many prisons, or houses of correction; they are thus wholly removed from public view; indeed, a Greek lady is hardly visible any where, excepting at Corfù, where the French had sufficient opportunity and influence to civilize them so far, as to introduce the women into society. Colonel Sir P. Ross* has attempted, and

* It is a tribute due to Colonel, now Major General Sir P. Ross, and to Lady Ross, to state here that, to the author's own knowledge, tra-

in a great measure succeeded, in two islands where he has been governor, St^a. Maura and Zante, to break through the inveterate habits of seclusion, and consequent degradation, of the female part of society.

For the antiquarian, Zante affords little or no attractions. At present there is but one ancient inscription to be found there, which is, however, very interesting; it is upon the face of a marble which serves for an altar in a little chapel at Melinado, a village about six or seven miles from the town: the chapel is built upon the site of an ancient temple. Four Ionic columns without capitals, but standing upon their proper bases, support a roof of wood, which serves as a sort of portico to the modern chapel: the marble is set upon the fragment of another column, with the inscription, as St. Sauveur remarks, stupidly reversed, the letters being turned upside down. The following is an exact copy of the inscription:—

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vellers and tourists of all descriptions never failed to meet with a dignified and hospitable reception from them, at all times, whilst residing at each island. At Sir Patrick's table, and at Lady Ross's evening parties, an opportunity was given to them, as well as to the officers of the garrison, of associating with the islanders of distinction; so that the whole three classes were approximated, and mutually availed themselves of the advantages offered by this easy mode of introduction and acquaintance.

ΑΡΧΙΚΛΗΣΑΡΙΣΤΟΜΕΝΕΟΣΚΑΙΑΛΚΙ
ΔΑΜΑΑΡΧΙΚΛΕΟΣΚΛΗΝΙΠΠΑΝΤΑΝΑΥ
ΤΩΝΘΥΓΑΤΕΡΑΘΕΟΚΛΗΣΑΣΑΝΑΡΤΕΜΙΤΙ ΟΠΙΤΑΙΔΙ

Archicles, the son of Aristomenes, and Alkidama, wife of Archicles, have devoted their daughter, Klenippa, to the Optidian Diana. It is to be hoped, a milder deity than the fell and vindictive Diana Triclaria, of Patras, upon whose altar it was annually, and for ages, customary to immolate a virgin and youth *, of the greatest beauty that could be found, to appease the goddess for the outrage that had been committed in her temple, by the violation of her priestess, Cometho.

* Pausanias relates the story: Melanippus was a youth of great beauty and enamoured of Cometho, the priestess of Diana, who was mutually attached to him. They contrived to satisfy their passion in the very temple of the goddess, which brought down her just vengeance upon them and the people of Patras, by instituting the horrid sacrifice.

Pausanias adds, that the river which flowed beneath the temple was from that time called Amilichus (deadly), and that when the dreadful sacrifice was discontinued, it received the name of Milichus (mild), as if the first name had been given with a prophetic anticipation of what was to happen some hundred years afterwards.—The heathen writers abound in such absurdities as this.

CHAPTER XIII.

Revenue of the islands inadequate to their expenditure—Misappropriation of the church revenues corrected, which measure caused the late disturbances at Zante—Persecution of the Jews—Religious tenets—Superstition—Pretended plot against government—Bribery—Trial of Martenengo for high treason—Russian party—Cause of party in general—Greeks require a strict government.

ALTHOUGH great financial improvements have taken place since the operation of the new constitution has begun, yet the revenue of the islands is, at present, greatly inadequate to their expenditure, and will, probably, long continue so. By the treaty of Paris they were bound to pay the expenses of the troops furnished by the protecting power, which were limited to four thousand men; this obligation was, however, relinquished on the part of the British government, on account of the inability of the revenue to bear such a charge; and it is arranged, that they shall be, for the present, liable only to the expenses of lodging the troops:

the only contribution then required of the seven islands towards their protection is, to supply the expenses of barracks and their repairs.

How insufficient the means are, of meeting the expenses of the civil and military government, will be seen, by comparing the actual amount of the latter with the revenue. The maximum of revenue, which is very variable on account of the precarious produce of the olives, its chief source, falls short of 550,000 dollars, or about £110,000 sterling: the actual expenditure of the British force employed in the islands in March 1821 was £105,000 sterling*; were these expenses to be defrayed out of the former sum, a balance of £5,000 only would remain to cover the expenses of the civil government.

So that the advantage derived to the protecting power is not very evident, unless it be negatively so, by withholding the possession from others, who might convert it to some purpose, mediately or immediately affecting the interests of the former†. In a commercial point of view, perhaps, Malta, in furnishing a sufficiently secure and convenient entrepôt for the trade of the Levant and Adriatic, would more than compensate all the advantages that could be derived to Great Britain from the islands, in lieu of the protection afforded them.

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* *Vide* Appendix, E.

† *Vide* General de Vaudoncourt's *Exposé* of the Political Designs of Austria, Russia, and France upon these Islands.

The established religion is that of the Greek church. The appointment to the church dignities is, at present, exercised by the government, but the final arrangements for the ecclesiastical establishment are not yet made. By the new constitutional charter, there is to be an archbishop in each of the four larger islands, Corfù, Cephalonia, Zante and St^a. Maura, and a bishop in each of the three smaller, Ithaca, Paxù, and Cerigo.

The wresting of the church revenues from the hands of the administrators, a measure which passed the legislature in the session of 1820, excited a very strong sensation, which was augmented by the individuals who were chiefly interested therein: these latter were moneyed people, whose predecessors, in the time of the difficulties and exactions of the Venetian government, bought up or farmed the church estates at a very low price, and had continued to enjoy the rents arising from them, without fulfilling even the conditions of the contract. The abuses that this system gave rise to, in the hands of Greek laymen, may be easily conceived. The people were generally ignorant of, or cared not about the matter, so long as their religious processions and feasts were kept up; and the bulk of the clergy were just as ignorant and indifferent about it as the mass of the people. The administrators, however, soon contrived to misinterpret and misrepresent the matter amongst the lower orders, with whom their influence is generally proportional

to their wealth: the transaction was denominated sacrilegious, and it was insinuated, that government intended to appropriate the whole of the church revenues, and, eventually to overturn the established religion. Serious disturbances were accordingly excited in Zante, and a plot was actually laid for the murder of the Protopapa, or head priest, who, to forward the views of the legislature, attempted to remove the false impressions, which crafty and ill disposed individuals had been thus so active in forming and propagating.

There are many who profess the religion of the Latin church, which, with that of the reformed church, is fully tolerated; and Jews are to be found in all the larger towns. The persecution of this unfortunate people is here carried to excess, and on some occasions it requires the interference of a strong police, often aided by the military, to protect them from the insults of the populace. These disturbances usually happen at the great festivals, particularly at Easter, when the minds of those weak enthusiasts are inflamed to fanaticism, by the erroneous notions with which their religious exercises, at that season inspire them. Hence their uncharitable conduct towards those unfortunate beings, which they look upon to be highly meritorious. On these occasions it is often found expedient to shut the Jews up in their own houses: and indeed it is asserted that their ill treatment is often provoked by themselves, from their reviling

the Christian ceremonies practised at those periods. The religious ceremonies of the Greeks are still more numerous and more pompous than those of the Latin church; their tenets approximate more to those of the reformed church, in the rejection of the doctrines of purgatory and transubstantiation: they deny too the supremacy of the Pope, but acknowledge that of the Greek Patriarch at Constantinople. Every island has its tutelary saint, besides innumerable others that preside over cities, mountains, woods and waters: there is no church which is not dedicated to some saint, as of old temples were consecrated only to particular of the gods.

The extreme superstition of the Greeks has led to the inroad of witchcraft or necromancy, which amongst the ignorant, holds an extraordinary influence upon their minds. The black art is termed by them, *megàrasia*, and is practised by the old women of the Morea, which is the prolific nest of this tribe. Canidia herself was not more abominable than one of those hags; their power is chiefly over the attachment of the sexes, which it can create or destroy at pleasure: so general is this credulity, that the purchase of charms, amulets, filtres, and antidotes, makes part of the commerce with the Morea*. The influence of the evil eye is also

* A friend of mine who was inspector of the police in one of the islands, and before whom all the petty causes underwent the in-

firmly credited by them; insomuch, that the usual blessing bestowed upon an infant is, that in the course of his life he may not meet with so terrible a misfortune,

The morality of the Greeks has been proverbially bad, and they still retain their character for cunning and duplicity. The corruption introduced by the Venetians, in the exactions of the needy proveditori (governors) and their followers, has not a little tended to fix the demoralization of this people: the excesses committed by those gave rise to a regular system of plunder, peculation, and deceit amongst them; money was borrowed of the Jews at Venice, for the purpose of traffick by these

itiative, previously to being submitted to the higher courts of justice, had a curious cause to decide one day: the complainant was a woman of Prevesa, of about double the age of the defendant, a young man whom she accused of having squandered her money, and then abandoned her to live with another. The defendant set up, that she had practised *strigeria*, or the magical art upon him, in which she was well known to be versed; that he was conscious of the influence she exerted over him, by his feeling himself incapable of cohabiting with any other woman from the moment he first knew her, and that under this spell, the only resource he had was to apply to the Morea for a countercharm, which he had purchased for thirty dollars, producing the amulet, which he wore under his knee in the court. My friend, in the momentary indignation which such an instance of human ignorance and depravity naturally excited, had the filthy charm flung out at the window, as much to the astonishment as the terror of its owner and the bystanders, at his hardihood and want of faith in a matter that was so commonly believed and dreaded.

merciless usurers: fifty per cent. was the interest* exacted at the end of the year, and the sum remaining unpaid was doubled each succeeding year. These "*affreux excès*," as a French writer† calls them, were denominated, *prostichii;* every thing was venal, and nothing could satisfy their avidity: the hiring of assassins was sanctioned as a means of filling their coffers. Such a system of depravity prevailing in the government of a people naturally prone to deceit, it may well be imagined, that centuries will not suffice to assimilate their morals to those of other European nations. Nothing sets in a clearer point of view the dereliction of every thing virtuous and honourable amongst them, than the total disregard to truth, in which they are brought up; they seem to take as much pains to discourage ingenuousness and candour, as a people of more elevated principle would, to detect and punish prevarication and falsehood: the probability is, that a young Greek will deceive you, even in matters of the greatest indifference; although he gains no immediate advantage by this sacrifice of candour, yet he considers that, by holding you in ignorance, he is ready to profit by his craft at

* The rate of interest in the Venetian states was, however, at this period, most exorbitant; a circumstance which arose in the decline of that Republic, subsequent to the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope. The decay of commerce withdrew the competition in the market, by which the profits of stock were enormously increased, and with it the value of money, or what is the same, interest.—*Vide* SMITH's *Wealth of Nations.*

† St. Sauveur.

some future emergency. Calumny and detraction are extremely common amongst them, nor is it at all unusual to see two persons, apparently on the most friendly terms, who, when separate, will mutually accuse each other of every thing that is base and dishonourable; but, as a just value is generally fixed upon this friendship reciprocally, neither party incurs much risk from yielding too much to the weakness of self-love: a delusion which, with a people of more simplicity, is always a dangerous tool in the hands of the designing. The means of directly prosecuting their revenge being removed by the complete extirpation of the knife and stiletto, that dreadful passion to which they are so prone, must be gratified by other means; hence the many criminal informations* and prosecutions

* An example of these false informations fell within the author's own cognizance at Cephalonia: a peasant came before the magistracy of health, and deposed that, a fellow villager had left the island for the Ottoman territories, and that he had returned clandestinely without performing quarantine; that he, recollecting the fatal consequences resulting from a similar transaction in 1816 †, came forward to prosecute the offender. It appeared that the accused had left the island with a design of going to the continent, but that he merely went to one of the other islands, and returned with a clean bill of health; and, further, that these men and their families had been long at variance. The informant, however, so far succeeded, as to have had his enemy imprisoned upon this charge of violating the health laws, and of which he had nearly had him convicted. The ruffian, by the plausibility of his story, thought to have evaded retaliation, but he was deceived, as the British sense of justice con-

† Viz. the introduction of the plague in Cephalonia.

the various perjuries and prevarications, and the never-ending disputes at law *.

One of the most extraordinary and artful impositions ever attempted to be practised upon a government, was by a young Greek under twenty years of age, in 1817; he contrived to put all the wheels of government in motion, and to have a number of the most respectable inhabitants of Corfù apprehended, under a suspicion of conspiracy against the state. Amongst his intended victims was his uncle, to whom the monster had been indebted for his maintenance and education when an orphan. With the assistance of an accomplice he forged letters and proclamations, purporting to be of a treasonable nature, between the individuals accused:—letters were found in the possession of several, which they could not account for; one man particularly was pointed out as having a treasonable paper in a certain book in his library, which was actually found. A pretended plot was disclosed to the agents of government, by which it was intended, that the citadel of Corfù was to have been attacked and taken possession of during the absence of the regiment which garrisoned it; for at that season it was customary to march out the

demned him to some months' imprisonment, a reward at once for his conscientiousness and his ingenuity.

* I have heard of an individual who was defendant in one hundred and fifty lawsuits at one time; the causes were mostly of a pecuniary nature.

corps alternately for exercise into the country; their march was countermanded, and the soldiers were absolutely kept under arms, until the ominous hour of attack was passed. The whole proved to be a fabrication, most ingeniously contrived, and a ludicrous story of the conspiracy appeared afterwards in the Paris papers.

The incredulity which they attribute to the English in matters of religion, and their rejection of superstitious faith, excites no less the astonishment of the Greeks, and perhaps their contempt, than the inflexible incorruptibility of the former—that hard cold quality, which, like certain iron, they find to be so unmalleable. From the head of the government down to the lowest corporal in the British army, this refractory property has been found to exist, but unsuccessfully assayed. I have known of bribes having been indirectly offered to British officers, and when scornfully rejected, the only emotion excited was that of surprise at this stupid indifference to self-interest. Where a direct attempt at corruption has been thus discouraged, the wily Greek has changed his plan of operations, and attempted to secure his victim by a secret appeal to his gratitude; thus presents have been made, large for the condition of the giver, and with the greatest apparent disinterestedness; they have been occasionally accepted too, upon the score of politeness, but when the price has been looked for, in the exercise of injustice, the result may

readily be conceived, where a British subject was concerned. People should, therefore, be extremely cautious how they accept of presents here, if they wish to save themselves the unpleasant feeling of self-reproach for ingratitude, however innocently incurred—

——— " timeo danaos et dona ferentes,"

is a maxim that should not be despised.

A most glaring instance of corruption has been this day (February 12, 1821 *,) exposed in the courts of justice. Martenengo, of Zante, being put upon his trial for high treason, as principal in the late disturbances in that island, a written proposition was produced in evidence, coming from the prisoner to the Lord High Commissioner, bearing date the 7th January, 1821.

He commenced by stating, how much the British were indebted to him for their introduction into the islands, to forward which event he had expended eight thousand dollars; with other claims upon their gratitude, and concluded by directly proposing to His Excellency, that he should be made a senator, when every thing should be done according to *his* will; (" come egli vorra;") that quiet should be restored in Zante; that the people should be undeceived as to the true purloiners (" Ususpatori,")

* The author was present and wrote down the facts as they occurred.

of the church revenues; in fine, that his whole fortune and influence in that island should be devoted to the service of government, and that with regard to the *will* of the Lord High Commissioner, he, Martenengo, should be in future ("*tutto, tutto, suo,*") wholly his instrument! evidently proposing to Sir Thomas Maitland, that to bribe him to procure his enlargement, and to make him a senator, he would without scruple or reserve sell himself and his country.

The trial gave scope to as beautiful a display of eloquence as perhaps has generally been witnessed: a talent of which I have often observed fine specimens in the pleadings in the Greek courts of justice*.

* The advocate-general, Manzaro, opened the prosecution. When he came to the prisoner's own deposition, (who was removed from the courts, having refused to plead,) he imagined him to be present, and addressed himself to the spot where he had stood; taking to pieces the whole of his deposition, refuting and confuting him upon every point, in a most lively and animated dialogue, (for he spoke for the prisoner also,) and concluded in a strain of oratory, well worthy a more suitable occasion. Alluding to the extensive influence of Martenengo, and the means he took to intimidate the primates of the villages, he proceeded: "This feudatory despot of Zante, the terror of the world! forgot every circumstance; one thing only did he recollect, that he was taken unprepared, ("*improvisoriamente,*") and by night; thus giving, I suppose, an idea of the mild and equitable government that *he* meant to establish, that no one should be arrested without warning forsooth, and never by night. Again "until he was '*sradicato*' (eradicated) from his chamber at

Faction, however absurd the term may appear, as applied to these islands under their present circumstances, still manifests itself occasionally. The source of this evil arises in the disappointment of party, and the spirit is kept up by the designing, in the ridiculous expectation of Russia's interfering in the management of these little states: hence the idea of the Russian party.

That the Russian minister, who is a Corfiot, did interfere in behalf of his friends and relations is at least generally believed, and the formal declaration* of the government, disappointing the views of those who speculated upon such changes, renders it extremely probable. The circumstance of such a person being employed in the Russian cabinet, added to the consideration of the views which that government formerly had upon these islands, and upon Greece in general, however time, (that is political time, which in the course of one year has been found to outstrip the ordinary march of ages,) may have altered those views, have misled many; and still there are malcontents who are stupid enough to look forward to Russia. That the Emperor of Russia would involve himself in a dispute with Great Britain, for the sake of establishing one party

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Zante—his Teppelene! his Yanina! whence the bloody mandates of this tyrant were issued,"—(alluding to his instigating the people by his secret emissaries to murder the Protopapa.)

* The proclamation of Sir Thomas Maitland, in 1820, stating his determination to continue the President of the senate in his office.

or another here, is too ridiculous for any but the parties themselves to suppose; and to imagine that he would incur the same risk for the sake of appropriating the islands, is imputing to him an equally bad policy: and, were not the honour of England concerned in resisting such unwarrantable pretensions upon the one part, or such downright aggression upon the other, it is a question whether she should not submit to the insult, and abandon the Ionian islands to their own destiny; thus exonerating herself of a troublesome and unprofitable charge, and freeing herself of an unnecessary expense, which she has been lavishing upon an ungrateful spoilt child, only her's by adoption. Were such speculations and such factions to continue to disturb the government, such must be the result: we cannot spare more troops to keep these turbulent islanders in order. But it is to be hoped, for the sake of the people themselves, that these disturbances are but partial and temporary, and that a general sense of their own interest will oppose itself to the ambitious views, and seditious instigations of disappointed individuals. As to the Russian party, it must be looked upon as a mere chimera.

The comparatively high salaries annexed to the different offices has been their apple of discord: hence the jealousy excited amongst them, well knowing that the persons thus elevated in rank and fortune above them are not much better in reality than themselves: a reflection naturally invidious

and humiliating; but which must always attend the new allotment of places and power in the formation of all new governments.

It would appear from these considerations that the government of these islands will require a tighter rather than a more lax rein, and indeed their state of comparative tranquillity under the oppressive government of Venice proves the position to a demonstration, (admitting the comparative excellence of the new constitution, which no septinsular malcontent will be, perhaps, disposed to question, if the Venetian gallies, the Russian knout, French assignats, or the Turkish bastinado do not altogether escape his recollection.) As patriotism has degenerated into a spirit of faction and licentiousness, so has the valour of the ancient Greeks been absorbed in equally immoral and odious qualities amongst their degenerate descendants*; thus an implacable spirit of revenge is fostered against

* Their want of courage is well exemplified in the conduct of the boatmen, who, upon several occasions, when danger existed from bad weather, have been literally driven by blows from their lamps and saints by British officers, to work to save their own dastardly lives. Many a ridiculous example of this spirit has been also exposed in the persons of the valiant senators and legislators themselves, who have to proceed to Corfù annually from the other islands to attend the meetings of parliament. The usual compact upon these occasions is, that they shall sleep on shore every night! so that if they cannot coast it, they must run into harbour at night, or go back until a favourable opportunity offers to make the stretch by day between two islands; this is usually done in a calm by rowing.

an enemy, and handed down from father to son: this horrible propensity was also encouraged by the venality of the Venetian administration, which extended to the purchase of immunity from guilt, and the license to raise the dark knife and bloody stilletto against the breast of unoffending innocence.

CHAPTER XIV.

Education—Emigration for the acquirement of knowledge—College intended to be built at Ithaca—Language—Facility with which the Greeks acquire foreign languages—Society—degradation of the women—Music and dancing—Choro Cretico—Interior ornament of Greek houses—Subserviency—Hospitality—Living—Provisions—Climate—Marriage—Funerals.

THE education of the lower classes is by no means so neglected, as the little attention paid by the islanders to other important objects would lead one to conclude it to be. There are few villages in which the elementary part of education, reading at least, is not taught by one or more masters who are usually priests. This is an advantage which, perhaps, in most catholic countries also, balances in a great measure the evil, which is considered to affect society, in the poverty and want of better education of the lower order of the priesthood. The profound reverence, which the sacred habit always inspires in these countries, cannot but have a tendency to render the precepts taught by their

clergy the more impressive. The great defect is the want of seminaries for the instruction of youth of the higher and middle classes. Their only resource at present is to repair to the continental schools, and chiefly to those of Italy, where the greater part of the young men are educated, at least such as are designed for the law, or to become physicians. The Cephaloniots are remarkable for this propensity to emigrate for the sake of studying, the latter profession particularly; and many of them afterwards settle in the Turkish dominions where they are held in great repute. It is expected that government will establish a college, and Ithaca is generally supposed to have been selected, as the most central and convenient place for this purpose. Lord Guildford has undertaken the management and completion of this project with a truly literary, and, we are persuaded, benevolent spirit; it is only to be regretted that greater progress has not been made towards the accomplishment of the design. It is to be hoped that the advantages of the institution will be extended to the whole of Greece, insular and continental, from the largeness of the scale upon which, as it is understood, the foundation is to be laid.'

Although the purposes of general education may be fully carried into effect, by the selection of professors suitably qualified, it is to be feared, that to acquire a practical knowlege of law and physic, recourse must, after all, be had to the continental

schools. With regard to the profession of physic at least, it is certain that, without the opportunities, such as are afforded by populous cities, of studying diseases in hospitals at the bed of the sick, as well as the facilities, which are there only available, of acquiring a practical knowledge of the elementary sciences of anatomy and chemistry, that important art cannot be learned.

The language spoken in the islands is a dialect of the Romaïc; most of the inhabitants of the large towns speak also Italian in the Venetian dialect, and many of them speak French. In speaking Italian they use the nasal sound of the French nearly, with the elision of the final e in such words as "*padrone*," which they pronounce, padron, or, more generally, patron; nearly as the French would pronounce that word; this is the most remarkable peculiarity. Another which is very common, is the sounding of C before E as a Z in English: as "*C'è*," there is, which they pronounce, Ze: a Tuscan would say, "*Non è buono*;" a Venetian, "No ze bon;" the latter word pronounced nearly as in French. With regard to the modern Greek, there is still a great affinity between it and the ancient language, indeed so much so, that one who has a common knowledge of the latter, can understand the written Romaïc with very little difficulty: for example, an Englishman unacquainted with the Romaïc, but knowing ancient Greek, will not understand the proclamations, or the church service, which

he hears read to the people; but can readily comprehend them if he read them himself. The most remarkable and important change in the language is the disuse of inflections, and the adopting auxiliaries in the tenses of the verbs, as in other European languages. In the use of auxiliaries may be noticed a curious coincidence with the structure of the English verb, in conjugating the future tense with the word θελω (thelo,) I will; the other auxiliaries are the verbs εἰμί and εχω, which are used as the verbs, to be, to have, and correspondent others in the other European languages. The most remarkable variations from our mode of pronouncing Greek are, in the letter β, which is sounded like our letter V; in the diphthong, ευ, which is sounded, ep; in the letter Δ, which is pronounced dtheelta; and in the letter Υ, which is pronounced as the English vowel E. An example of the first variation is in pronouncing the word Vathi, spelt in Greek, βαθί, a town in Ithaca; (so called from βαθος, depth, on account of the deepness of its port;) the etymology of the word, as it is spoken, would altogether escape the observation of an Englishman who was unacquainted with its orthography. The modern pronunciation of the word Οδυσσευς, which is called Odisseps, is an instance of the second variation. A remarkable peculiarity in the Greek, as distinguished from the English mode of reading Romaïc, is, the frequent accentuation of the last syllable; the quantity is twice sacrificed in their way of pronouncing ανθρωπος, which they call, *anthrŏpōs*. The

introduction of Italian has tended greatly to corrupt the native language, a number of the phrases of the former being intermixed with the language spoken by the people who live in towns. The villagers are free from this adulteration, and the consequence is, that much purer Romaïc is spoken in the country than in the large towns. The Greeks learn English with great facility, and pronounce it better than, perhaps, any other foreigners; the pronunciation of the English Th is quite familiar to them; their Θ answering to our Th in the word "thin;" and Δ to Th in the word, "this."

In society a great difficulty exists of uniting the Greeks with the English. Very little has been done to remove the impediments to so desirable an object, and this must be, in a great measure, attributed to the disposition of the English themselves. There is a great difference between the French and us in this respect: a Frenchman who despises every other but the "*grande nation*," has yet the policy and the good manners to conceal his opinion, as far as it affects others in his scale of comparison. A surly Englishman despises all the world; and what is worse, he makes them know and feel his contempt, having neither the good sense nor politeness to keep his spleen to himself: so that it is doubtful if more is not lost by this drawback of plainness and sincerity, than is gained by his high opinion of himself, however justly he may entertain it. Whatever be the reason, the fact is, that the Greeks and English

do not associate together as they ought: indeed, excepting amongst the better orders, the Greeks very seldom associate with each other, that is to say, according to the English and French notions of society.

Excepting at Corfù, the women are universally banished from table, their usual employment being to cook for their husbands, to serve their dinner or supper, and to perform every other menial office about the house; contenting themselves with an irregular unenjoyous meal taken at intervals, as their domestic occupations allow, or their inclinations prompt. In the country the female peasant carries the wood and water*, works at the olive mill, and performs, in fact, every laborious office, whilst her husband sleeps or feeds, until the task of pruning the vines, cultivating the fields, (which toil is indeed common to both sexes,) or other duty assigned to him, calls forth his exertions, and when this is the case, he can hardly be called

* The author, during the plague at Leftimo, had to shut up the village of Milichia, containing about eight hundred inhabitants; that is, to have their provisions carried to them in their houses, where they were locked up to prevent communication. Amongst other necessaries the conveyance of water was one of the principal, and it was with no small difficulty that eight men could be procured in the village to supply the different families: alleging, that carrying water was an office always performed by women, and that a Greek was ashamed, "*aveva vergogna*," as it was interpreted, to do the work of women. However, it was necessary to remove their scruples by force, to insure the public safety.

idle. At the festivals in the country, which are celebrated in the open air, the men and women separate into distinct parties, sitting down in circles, and dining upon the grass in the olive shade: these are the occasions of their greatest mirth and hilarity; and, certainly, a very delightful spectacle it is. After refreshing themselves, they unite into sēts and dance upon the green turf under a cloudless sky, with a merriment which is, at least, undisturbed by any disgraceful instances of intoxication :—one loves to enjoy scenes of human happiness like these!

The Greeks, like the Italians, are passionately fond of music and dancing; amongst the peasantry the favourite dance is the Ariadne, or, as it is more generally termed by them, χορω κρετίκω (*Choro Cretico*), the Cretan dance. This common appellation, as well as the figure of the dance, are singular facts which seem to indicate its origin. The men and women stand alternately, holding each other by a white handkerchief, in a circle, which is broken by an interval between the leader and the last person of the dance; the leader is the principal, or rather the only *figurante*, performing several tricks and feats, tumbling and winding through the circle, which follows him in his various evolutions. The holding by the handkerchief, and the antic manœuvres of the χορεγος (*choregos*), as he is called, are supposed to bear some remote allusion to the clue of Ariadne, and the extrication

of Theseus by it through the windings of the labyrinth. As to the gracefulness of the performers much cannot be said, no more than perhaps of any other rustic dance; it is, however, much more light and agreeable than the boisterous Scotch and Irish performances, by the same class of people, or the cumbrous English dance *. That the Greeks are still capable of moving gracefully to time is clearly evinced in the masquerade dancing which is sometimes seen upon the stage at Corfù during the carnival, as also at the public balls given occasionally by the Governor, and by the British garrison. Waltzes and quadrilles, with select English country dances, are as elegantly gone through, if not more so, than they are at much more fashionable towns than Corfù.

The taste of the Greeks for music is not less remarkable than their fondness for dancing. In the larger towns the Italian music is preferred to

* The author was singularly amused one night at Argostoli by a party of young fellows, Greeks, who, like the Italians, parade the streets at night, singing to a fiddle and guitar. It was of a beautiful moon-light night in December; the party took it into their heads to mimic the English dancing; they romped, and stamped, and roared, burlesquing the noisy reel, gig, and English country dance of our soldiers and soldiers' wives, of which they had a little before seen a specimen at a serjeant's ball, in honour of St. Andrew. This farcical ballet was, however, performed to a sort of musical cadence, which, without any particular tune or figure, bore a certain resemblance to what it was intended to represent, and was exceedingly droll and laughable.

the native, and it is a custom, as common as it is in Italy, for parties to parade the streets at night, serenading, and singing in concert with the guitar and violin parts out of the finest Italian operas. The plaintive Greek airs * too, have a pathos which, in the stillness of the serene nights of this soft climate, produce an effect that is indescribably delightful. Many of the Italian songs are put into Greek version with the original music: of these, Anima Mia, in Greek Ψυχη με *(Psiche moo)*, is one of the most remarkable and the most beautiful.

Amongst the amusements of the modern Greeks, the most manly and the most graceful is the giostra. This is performed on horseback by running with a lance at a ring, which is suspended over the horsemen at a convenient height. He who carries off the ring upon the lance wins the prize. Great preparations are made for this spectacle, stages are erected for the umpires, and the prize, which is usually a handsome sword or other appropriate gift, is conferred upon the winner, generally by the head of the government. This is a truly elegant amusement, and well worthy of imitation; the spirit and condition of the island horses do not, however, add much to its grandeur.

The dress of the Greek islanders is remarkably

* A specimen of a very favourite Romaïc tune is given in the Appendix (F). This is very much admired, and very beautifully sung by the Greek ladies at Corfù.

different from the general European costume. The better classes, and those who live in large towns, have adopted the Venetian and Italian, and latterly the English and French modes; but the lower orders and the villages preserve their own dress. To begin with the head—the hair is worn long and floating upon the shoulders; some use the small red Albanian scull cap, which just covers the crown of the head; others wear a cap of white, blue, or red cotton, which hangs in a bag behind, or at one side: this is the most common head dress of the men, particularly of the peasantry. A double breasted waistcoat usually made of velvet, marone coloured or blue, is fastened wide across the chest with a double row of hanging buttons of gold or silver, which descend from each shoulder and approach each other to the waist. It is generally bordered with broad gold lace, and made to fasten with the sash, of coloured silk, which is worn close to the waist: this is a very beautiful dress. The lower covering, which is the most peculiar, is called *thoraki*. This is a wide sack, as it were, made mostly of blue cotton, with holes at the corners through which the legs are thrust, and when worn, forms many folds of superfluous cloth that hang between the legs. It resembles a cossack trowsers somewhat, cut short at the knee, the hinder part descending about one third down the thighs: this part of the dress is very unbecoming indeed. The thoraki is supported by the silk sash, which embraces the loins as above described, and the latter

being worn tightly from their infancy makes them remarkably small in the waist: this, combined with other causes renders them however, subject to certain physical inconveniences of a very serious description. The short white petticoat of the Albanian, unconfined at the knee, and resembling the scotch kilt, but that its simplicity renders it more beautiful, is a much more graceful dress than the thoraki. On the legs are worn white cotton stockings, and shoes on the feet, with very large buckles, or made in the shape of women's shoes. A much prettier covering for the feet is a sandal made of undressed leather, fitting the foot exactly, and strapped across the instep and up the lower part of the leg: this is only worn by the very lowest class, chiefly the goat-herds; the remaining part of the dress of these last poor people, consists of a thick cloak of goats' hair or wool with a hood to cover the head; sometimes, simply a sheep-skin fashioned into a cloak, but of whatever material it is made, they usually sleep in it in the open air. The women wear their hair platted and hanging down to their heels; they take great pains with it: a handkerchief, worn cornerwise, usually covers the head. The waists are long, the vests made like the men's, of purple or marone velvet, richly ornamented with gold lace. A beautiful girdle is worn under the vest, which latter floats open, the former fastened in front by a clasp, which is connected with an immensely large gold or silver ornament at each side, round and convex like the center of a shield.

The petticoats are of pink or blue silk, richly bordered and spangled. No stays are worn. The greatest singularity in the female dress is, its fitting closely to the waist all round, which is far from being unbecoming to a well formed woman. The female peasants wear high heels to their shoes, and very large silver buckles.

The interior of the houses of the Greeks is, generally speaking, and considering their other habits, clean; they all have a good bed, that is, good for the condition of the owner. A great degree of neatness prevails in the houses of some of the better class; the ornament however shews more of false taste than a proper notion of comfort. Their furniture is procured from Venice and Trieste. Amongst others of their decorations may be occasionally observed a likeness of his Majesty, not very flattering indeed, and copied by the Greek artists from original drawings: A bust of Sir Thomas Maitland, or whomever happens to be governor*, is to be seen in every legislator's and judge's house, and sometimes a daub, intended to represent some local governor or resident, serve to make up the list

* The present Lord High Commissioner had hardly opened his lips when he was denominated the Aristides, the Solon, the Conon, and the *Quidnon* of the age. We have a high respect for his Excellency, but imagine that it never entered into his head to cope with those old Grecian worthies, otherwise the matter might hereafter come into serious dispute before Lord Chief Justice Minos, or Judge Rhadamanthus perhaps, in the Areopagus of Pluto.

of their *lares* and *penates*. Not long since their only idol was Sir James Campbell, late governor in the islands, whose bust of stucco now sells upon the standings for a few oboli. Notwithstanding their insincerity, the Greeks are remarkable for their hospitality—that innate virtue of the human heart, which is found often to exist where almost every other is unknown, and which, since the day of the exchange of armour between Glaucus and Diomede, seems to be hereditary with them, as well as the craft which was practised upon that occasion.

The better classes dine at one o'clock, after which they sleep, as in Spain and Italy, until four P. M., in the hot weather. The more common hour of dinner is at noon, and is always a light meal, consisting perhaps of a little bread and cheese, or a salad and some wine. Breakfast is taken at an early hour, and is made of one or two small dishes of coffee. Coffee or lemonade is invariably presented to visitors in the forenoon, with various sorts of liqueurs; rum is very much relished on these occasions. The chief meal is supper, when they (the men) sit down regularly, and enjoy their fowl and soup, or fish, cheese, salad, and fruit with wine: in almost every house, whatever be the fare, napkins are used, and silver forks and spoons. Although their usual manner of living is simple, yet upon great festivals or entertainments, the profusion and variety of dishes, and the voraciousness of the guests are truly astonishing. A favourite dish

upon these occasions, is an immense roasted turkey garnished with fowls, or a lamb roasted whole. Intoxication is seldom or never witnessed.

There are no hotels or coffee houses in the islands excepting the locanda, which are of the meanest description of Italian or Venetian eating houses. An English hotel has been lately established at Corfu upon a large and handsome scale, but it is to be feared that this speculation will not succeed, from the few strangers that resort there, who have not lodgings provided for them elsewhere. The establishment deserves every sort of encouragement.

Provisions are, upon the whole, exceedingly bad throughout the islands. Good mutton is scarcely ever to be got, and beef almost as seldom. A good dish of fish may sometimes be procured by mere accident, and the poultry is far inferior to that of England. Fresh butter is not to be had, and the milk of goats is used, but even this supply fails altogether for about three months, at the latter end of the year. Bread is generally good and cheap; wine is cheap, but not good, the common wine in use being little better than English small beer. Upon the whole a person living here must forego many little comforts, and submit to many privations; amongst these may be reckoned, in winter, the scarcity and dearness of fuel, and the bad construction of the houses for the exclusion of cold, to which one becomes doubly sensible by long im-

mersion in the heat during the summer months: indeed this inconvenience has something even more positive in it, *viz.* the cold arising from the neighbourhood of the snowy Albanian mountains, and the stormy and rainy weather of winter. So that it behoves a pampered invalid to consider well with what fortitude and resignation he can bear all these little abstractions, before he changes his comfortable fire side at home, for visionary expectations of health and happiness abroad.

Yet the climate, with the exception of these changes, is, upon the whole delightful, and to one in the full enjoyment of health, superior to most others. The variable winter weather is but short, and the cold, although occasionally severe, is not excessive; it usually commences about Christmas, when the Albanian mountains have collected their winter covering of snow. The thermometer now, during the prevalence of the easterly winds, often sinks as low as 45° and even 40° of Fahrenheit, but seldom falls so low as the freezing point: this often alternates with a delightful spring temperature, while the southerly and westerly winds prevail.

In February, the early fruit trees, as the almond, apricot, and peach, shoot forth their blossoms; and in March follow the pears, apples, and cherries. When the spring is mild, the cherries ripen early in April. Abundance of vegetables now pour in, in quick succession; cauliflowers, artichokes,

pease, and beans, and only require, with the various fruits, a more careful and scientific system of horticulture, to improve their quality and protract the succession of their crops. The delicious green figs come in in May; grapes ripen in July, and oranges and citrons may be pulled off the tree the whole year round, the blossoms and fruit appearing at once upon the same stem. The olives blossom in the month of April, ripen in October, and are gathered in November. The fruit when undisturbed remains upon the tree until May, the latter affording no nourishment to the young blossoms till the spring of the following year; so that the production of oil takes place biennially.*

The violet, the hyacinth, ranunculus, jonquil, and rose, appear early in the spring, and are succeeded by other flowers innumerable in abundance and variety.

Vegetation, which is so rapid in the Spring, suffers an early check from the heat in June; but

* The durability of this tree is astonishing, it is known to last for centuries, and its strong attachment to life is every where exemplified, in the shells of old trunks which still bear fruit; I have seen these consisting almost solely of the bark, without the alburnum, or interior wood of the tree, so that by what means the circulation of the sap, and support of vegetation is carried on, seems to be a question for physiologists. Another singular fact which I have noticed is the root remaining in the ground after the rest of the tree had been wholly decayed, being turned into limestone: so that Minerva's olive, in the acropolis of Athens, seems to cease to be miraculous.

no sooner has the high temperature been permanently lowered by the equinoctial rains, than a second and lovelier spring succeeds, spreading her green mantle over the arid mountains, and developing her new store of roses and autumnal flowers in gay profusion. This delightful weather often continues till Christmas, and in remarkably mild winters, is almost uninterrupted, until the hot weather commences in June again: so that the enchanting picture of perpetual Spring, which the author of Telemachus draws of the island of Calypso, is here, in some years, almost realized. The beauty of the evergreens adds not a little to the effect produced by the occasionally temperate winters, and always diminishes the gloom and sadness of that season: the laurel, the myrtle, pine, cypress, olive, orange, locust, date, and many other trees, preserve their verdure diversifying the winter scenery with the tints of Spring. The excessively hot weather commences about the middle of July; the thermometer now gradually ascends from 84° to 90°, which is the usual maximum; it however reaches 96° in some hot years. This uncomfortable heat continues until the rains fall in the latter end of August or beginning of September; they are regularly periodical, and may be looked for in either the last week of the former, or first week of the latter month. The ardent summer fever now sets in, and there is much danger in exposure to the sun between the hours of six o'clock in the morning and five in the evening, although the sea breeze frequently renders it pleasant, and safe,

but of doors, between ten o'clock and noon. The sun setting in this parallel more than an hour earlier than it does in England, at the summer solstice, that is to say, the length of the day from noon to sunset being more than one hour less, a delightful coolness immediately succeeds his immersion below the horizon, and the dews quickly descending, reduce the temperature of the external air still more. The beauty of the mountain tints at this moment are particularly striking, their bases enveloped in a purple partaking mostly of blue, while their summits still glow with a beautiful soft lake, as rich as if it were laid upon velvet. The fire fly, which haunts the moist ditches, now illuminates the hedges with its sparkling lamp, and every object invites to partake of the freshness of the evening; the public walks are crowded, and the ice and coffee-houses thickly frequented; seats are disposed in front outside of the shops, and the hour of rest is protracted usually till long after midnight, the natives wisely substituting their *siesta*, or afternoon sleep, for that which would otherwise deprive them of the enjoyment of these delicious hours.

The Greeks marry early; there are instances of girls commencing the cares of a family at eleven years of age, many at twelve, and most begin before sixteen. A virgin arrived at the age of twenty-five, is as effectually removed from all matrimonial competition, as a maiden lady with us at forty: the match is made up by the parents of the young

people, who generally never see each other until all is concluded but the ceremony. There is a regular valuation of the bride's dresses and household furniture, called the *stima*, which enters into the computation of the dowry between the old folk. Matters being so far arranged, the man pays his intended a formal visit, and makes her a present of a ring, from which time they are betrothed. The wedding may be deferred for an indefinite period afterwards, but is, nevertheless, fixed upon from this moment: the time selected is, when circumstances will allow, (of course time being the chief consideration,) immediately before, or after Lent, viz., during the carnival, and more frequently at Easter. The marriage ceremony is performed with great solemnity, the priest attending, dressed in his robes, with book and candle light; and if it be more tedious to the parties themselves, than it is to the spectator, it must be a tiresome one indeed. Amongst other parts of the ceremony, the bride and bridegroom are ornamented with a crown of green myrtle or laurel, this has a pretty effect; the custom is most probably derived from the ancients. The consummation of the nuptials is verified, and celebrated in a most extraordinary way. The reader shall not be insulted with the description of this truly indelicate and indecent custom, but if he be curious to know it, he will find it in St. Sauveur, chap. 4. book 6. sect. 4.

The exclusively interested motives which regulate

the union of the sexes, of course preclude all possibility of mutual attachment, unless it be formed after marriage; the consequence of which is, that the immoral practice of divorcement is carried to great lengths, and conjugal infidelity is as general, as every other breach of morals and good faith. An exchange of wives is not an uncommon occurrence, to the mutual satisfaction of all the parties concerned.

After marriage, the young couple occupy a portion of the family residence, each succeeding male member who marries taking home his wife also into his father's house: the paternal mansion becomes thus sub-divided into a number of separate dwellings, the master of each having an equal interest in the family estate. The confusion arising from the clashing of so many interests, thus oddly combined, may be well imagined: but, the most disgraceful part of the system is, the total usurpation of paternal authority, the natural head of the family being, in most instances, deposed from his domestic rights, and reduced to a state very little preferable to that of one of his own menials.

The infamous practice of prostituting their children is common in the islands. A father will make a contract to dispose of his daughter for from one to three hundred dollars, and the girl regards the sacrifice upon her part as highly meritorious, inasmuch as it contributes to her parent's comfort or support.

The criminality of the action being thus softened down, other inducements besides that of filial affection are not wanting to entice the deluded female from the paths of virtue and honour, and to plunge her into an abyss of vice and infamy. The consequence is, that the practice is openly avowed, and, as if the law only regarded the interest and well being of the parent in all cases of the kind, there is no punishment for the wretch who thus sacrifices the honour of his family: on the contrary, he is fully protected in the possession of this, his property, by being allowed ample damages against the seducer, in case of elopement; the law being, that the latter shall be fined in a sum equivalent to what might be considered the virgin's portion, were she to be given away in marriage.

The dead are buried in the body of the churches usually. They are interred always with their clothes, just as they were worn in life; previously to their being deposited in the grave they are conveyed, dressed as above, in an open bier. This custom appears singular, and rather revolting at first to those who are unused to it; but, upon reflection, it must be allowed, that the more we are familiarized to objects connected with our necessary state of mortality, the better reconciled are we, perhaps, to the loss of friends, and the better prepared for our own inevitable lot. As soon as the bier is raised from the ground, an earthen vessel is flung out at the window, and

broken to pieces on the ground; the procession then moves off, attended by the clergy all in black, and with lighted candles, to the church, where the body remains for some hours before interment, laid out, as it were, in state.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX.

A

THE following remarks upon disease are chiefly addressed to the profession, and principally to the medical officers doing duty in these islands. The author offers them only as such, and with great deference; a regular treatise upon the subject being, of course, excluded from the scope of this work; they were made mostly, as was before stated, during a residence at Santa Maura, where first the marked character of remittent fever struck the author, in its most concentrated form, as an epidemic and an endemic disease. He would wish to be fully understood, in not here attempting to decry the use of blood-letting in fever in general: a remedy which, for six months in the year, he always found to be the sheet anchor in the treatment of the Mediterranean fever, and the utility of which the late Doctor Irvine fully developed in his treatise upon the diseases of Sicily.

The autumnal fever of Santa Maura differs from the bilious remittent that I have seen in other parts of the Mediterranean only in degree, and chiefly in the great degree of debility succeeding to the stage of excitement. There seems to be something

in the remote cause, exclusive of the violent reaction of the system, calculated to produce this alarming state, which no tonics or stimulants can support or overcome; for, it occasionally takes place where but little febrile action has preceded it. In individuals where this direct impression has been made, and its effects are afterwards to be evolved, bleeding is a highly dangerous operation, and is generally to be avoided: the remedy is extremely unpopular, and particularly so when the season is advanced; the middle of July may be looked upon as the period at which this revolution takes place. The fever, when attended with this debility, has been miscalled, typhus *; by the medical people of the country it is often called, amphimerina paludosa; but more commonly, terzana; sometimes, hemitriteo, according as they fancy that they have noted the duration and return of paroxysms or exacerbations. The medical practitioners here use emetics at first, and a preparation of antimony, kermes' mineral; they use the bark in large quantities. The fever, as it attacks the British in the island, is ushered in by slight shiverings, or rather fits of chilliness, alternating with transient flushes of heat; the more ardent the fever the less observable however are the chills; the headach and heat of skin then come on

* I never knew an instance of its being communicated by contagion. In most of the hospitals on this station, the cases of fever are necessarily mixed with other diseases, from the great proportion of the former and the want of room; I never saw a case of remittent fever caught from another in hospital.

at once; the former is sometimes so violent as to affect the sight: I have seen it produce hemeralopia, in two instances. The affection of vision is sympathetic, and its cause, as well as that of the head-ach, mostly referrible to foulness of stomach. A smart emetic is here the most useful remedy, although during its operation the pain of head be sometimes aggravated by it; when, a blister applied to the nape of the neck will remove the pain altogether in many cases: a powder of twenty grains of ipecacuanha and one grain of tartar emetic, repeated in a quarter of an hour, if the first powder fail, generally succeeds in evacuating a quantity of green bile, which will also pass off sometimes by stool. This usually relieves the head after one or two hours, and procures comfortable sleep, particularly when given in the evening*. The same effect however often follows, although not a particle of bile be dislodged, simply from the shock of the emetic upon the system†. The emetic should be followed up by a purgative, when necessary, the bolus of calomel and jalap, succeeded by a dose of neutral salts, is perhaps the best. A combination of calomel and antimonial

* Travellers in Greece should always provide themselves with a number of emetic powders as well as bark and purgative medicines; by the former, they may often cut short a fever in a few hours; by the latter, they can remove one of its exciting causes, and with bark they may support their constitution under its formation.

† The great danger dreaded from emetics is the effect of determination to the head: I have given at least two hundred emetics in the severest head-achs in fever, and never witnessed that effect.

powder, varying the quantity of each according to the state of the stomach, bowels, and skin, will be found to be a most useful auxilliary to bring about a remission, which succeeds the more speedily by adopting these means, when the bark should be given without delay. The periods of exacerbation and remission should be noted in each case, and the bark administered and continued, as near to the febrile accession, or exacerbation as the stomach will allow. When the periodical returns or augmentations of fever are regular, half an ounce of bark, given within an hour before the time of the attack, often interrupts the disposition to its formation and protracts the fit, sometimes even prevents it altogether. The most remarkable critical days are the third and the seventh. The fever often shews a tendency to observe the periodical revolutions of a tertian: this was remarkably the case in the summer of 1818. The exacerbations mostly occur at or about noon, and the remissions always take place towards morning. A very deep yellowness of the skin often succeeds, coming on usually about the fourth day: Of eighty cases of remittent fever occurring in the garrison of Santa Maura in the summer of 1817, this symptom appeared, most strongly marked, in twelve instances. The remote cause of the fever lies in the atmosphere; the noxious exhalations having abundant sources at the margin of the lake, and the skirts of the olive wood which touch the town. Notwithstanding the existence of a great

redundancy of bile in most cases, it must be looked upon merely as an accidental symptom, and cannot rank as a cause of the disease in any shape. I have seen three cases of jaundice occurring, whilst the remittent fever was at its height, in none of which was exhibited a symptom of the fever, and I have opened bodies where a deficiency of bile was found, the patients having died of the symptoms of remittent fever.

In observations *post mortem* the most striking phenomenon is the great redundancy of bile, which is generally found to distend the gall bladder, and to be extravasated into the duodenum, together with turgescence of the liver. Notwithstanding the generality of this occurrence, I have opened bodies that died of remittent fever, of a bad type, wherein a deficiency of bile was the most remarkable phenomenon, with extenuation of the gall bladder and collapse of the liver: in one case not a particle of bile could be found throughout the whole biliary system.

The next most remarkable appearance on dissection in fever, and in fact in all diseases terminating fatally here, is a contraction of the colon: in nearly one hundred cases of dissection, most of which I have performed myself, and have been present, a spectator of the remainder, have I witnessed this diseased structure in the greater number. This is an observation which can escape no one who is in the habit of inspecting bodies after death in these islands. Whether this alteration of structure arise from the astringent quality of the wines

of these countries, or from habitual and long continued costiveness unattended to by the soldier, or both circumstances conjoined, is worth investigating. It is impossible to ascertain if the natives be subject to this disorganization, as the *sectio cadaverum* is seldom or never performed by them. The free use of oil might correct the astringency of the wine and protect the bowels against its effects.

There are hardly any other diseases that occur during the operation of the marsh effluvia, that are not modified thereby. This is perhaps not a new observation; it is however useful for people to know, who are destined to reside here and in other similar situations: a few instances of the effects of this combination may not be deemed irrelevant, and to a certain class of my readers not uninteresting!

Wounds and contusions at these seasons are often attacked with erysipelatous inflammation; an abscess deemed critical of fever, has been attacked with a dangerous erysipelas œdematodes. Ulcers of the cornea are very intractable here, and more often succeed under treatment by bark, than by other remedies, or, than by the same remedy used in other places; in scrophulous habits they are almost incurable: diseased lining of the palpebræ, and chronic inflammation of the conjunctivæ, are equally uncertain and baffling; they sometimes yield, as well as a great many other chronic diseases, to the use of the bark. Pneumonia, although prevalent to a great extent, and most unscientifically treated by the native practitioners, does not often terminate in phthisis, a dis-

ease which is comparatively rare here; another proof, if indeed one were wanted, of the marshy atmosphere being unfavourable to the production of that disease. I have seen cases of phthisis recover here, that, I think, in other places would have been lost: the majority, however, of the consumptive have perished. The inhabitants of the city suffer much from fever; many of them labour under the sequelæ, glandular and visceral obstructions, yet some have the appearance of perfect health, and attain their full size and proportions, like the other natives of this island, who are so remarkable for their manliness of person and symmetry of form.

The following tables were drawn up in the year 1818, from the hospital records of the garrison at Santa Maura.

No. 1.—*Table of fevers from March 25th,* 1815, *to March* 24*th,* 1816.

CLASS OF TROOPS.	Average Strength.	FEVERS ADMITTED.				Deaths by Fever.
		Intermittent.	Remittent.	Continued.	Total.	
British, viz., 35th Regiment	200	24	7	14	45	2
Foreigners, viz., Corsican Rangers . . .	500	147	11	20	178	3

From which it would appear, that Italians and Corsicans are more subject to the fever in the intermittent form, and that the British suffer most by

the remittent the following proportions being the result.

	Proportion of British.	Proportion of Foreigners.
Subject to Intermittent		
——— Remittent		
Continued Fever	Unity	
Fever in General		
Mortality by Fever		

The summers of the years 1816 and 1817 were much more sickly than any of the preceding, since the occupation of the island by the British troops, and more particularly that of 1817. The following table will shew the comparative prevalence, and mortality of fever, in the years 1813 and 1817.

No. 2.—*Table of fevers in the years* 1813 *and* 1817.

YEARS.	Average Strength of the Garrison.	ADMISSIONS BY FEVER.				DEATHS BY FEVER.
		Intermittent.	Remittent.	Continued.	Total.	
1813	700	171	18	34	223	5
1817	300	38	89	17	144	12

From which the following proportions will result.

Proportion of	In 1813.	In 1817.
Intermittent fevers	as 1	to $\frac{1}{2}$
Remittent ditto	1	11
Continued	1	1
Fever in general	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Mortality by fever	1	4

The proportion of deaths to the number of sick of the garrison, from March 1813 to July 1818, is as one to thirty-four.

The exact proportion of sick, compared with the numerical force of the garrison, cannot be ascertained, from the strength being omitted at various periods of the returns.

In the construction of these tables, a few cases marked pneumonic fever and typhus, in the returns, are here included under the head remittent fever: the former occurring at a time of the year when pneumonia is seldom met with in these countries, and when the remittent fever is at its height; the latter, at that season when the remittent fever puts on much the appearance of typhus, which disease I have never met with in the course of seven years, either here, or elsewhere, in the Mediterranean; the admission or exclusion of these few cases, does not affect the proportions in any sensible degree.

B.

Analysis of some of the Minerals in the Islands.

Experiment, No. 1.

Zante Pitch Wells.

The following experiments were made with the help of such apparatus and materials as a military hospital could furnish; in conducting them therefore great exactness cannot be expected.

A. A vessel, which when full contained five ounces

and a half of common well water, was filled with the water of the large or fresh water pitch well. The weight of both were equal. The same vessel, filled with the water of the smaller or brackish well, weighed nine grains heavier. It follows, that the specific gravity of the saline well water, is to that of fresh well water as 10,034 to 10,000 nearly. An equal bulk of sea water was heavier than the fresh water by sixty-four grains.

B. The water of the Saline well afforded no precipitate upon the addition of Prussiat of lime, or infusion of galls, therefore contains no iron.

C. five ounces of the Saline well water were evaporated to three ounces.

a. To half an ounce of C. a saturated solution of muriat of barytes was added, so long as any precipitation was observed. The precipitate, dried, weighed two grains nearly, producing no effervescence with muriatic acid, and therefore indicating the presence of sulphuric acid. The proportion is, nearly sixty-eight grains to one hundred ounces of water.

b. To the remaining liquid of (a), poured off the precipitate in last experiment, a little nitric acid was added, and afterwards lime water, so long as any precipitation took place. The precipitate, washed and dried weighed half a grain, barely; indicating the existence of magnesia in the water, in the proportion of about half a grain to each ounce.

c. The remaining two ounces and a half of C. equalling 33½ drachms of the water before evaporation, was further evaporated to dryness, and afforded thirty-six grains of solid matter.

c. 1. By re-dissolving (c) in pure water, and re-crystallizing, thirty-two grains of

cubes of muriat of soda were obtained, but very deliquescent. The remainder was a mass of minute crystals very deliquescent, and which may be concluded to be sulphats of soda and magnesia, together amounting to about three grains, with about a grain of earthy matter.

The saline well therefore contains the same salts as sea water, in about the same proportions respectively, as far as experiments rudely conducted will allow us to conclude, but with a greater proportion of water. It probably communicates with the sea by infiltration.

Experiment, No. 2.

Potter's clay, Zante.

Forming the basis of the sand hills. External properties. Hardness; of pipeclay, nearly. Feel; soft, greasy. Colour; dull, blueish gray.

A. Seven drachms powdered and exposed to a heat, under red, for above an hour, lost seventeen grains.

B. Three hundred grains were dissolved in six drachms of muriatic acid diluted with twelve drachms of water, and after four hours lost 53 grains, indicating 117⅞ grains of carbonate of lime.

a. The insoluble residuum well washed and dried, weighed 181 grains.

b. An infusion of galls dropped into the menstruum, shewed no indication of iron.

a. 1. The insoluble residuum, (a), 181 grains, dissolved in half an ounce of sulph.

acid diluted with two ounces of water, and boiled for four hours, left an insoluble powder, which, repeatedly washed and well dried, amounted to 148 grains.

a. 2. The soluble part of (a) was concluded to be 33 grains.

Compound, consists of,	Carbonate of lime	117$\frac{7}{9}$
	Silex	148
	Alumine.....	33
		298$\frac{7}{9}$
	Loss.....	1$\frac{2}{9}$
		300

Experiment, No. 3.

Zante Selenite.

A fragment of an insulated mass, lying upon the right hand side of the road leading by the sea side to Scopò. Spec. gr. 2,069; Colour, pale olive green; regularly crystallized in rhomboidal tables; highly transparent; lustre specular, but not uniformly so; soft, yielding to the nail.

A. Three hundred grains pulverized and exposed to a heat below red for one hour lost sixty-two grains.

B. To one hundred and twenty grains were added half an ounce of muriatic acid diluted with two ounces of water; effervescence scarcely perceptible; after an hour's digesting, lost four and a half grains. Contains ten grains of carbonat of lime.

C. But little effect being produced by the dilute muriatic acid, an ounce of nitric acid was added to B. and the whole was boiled for an hour—The insoluble part well washed and dried weighed thirty-two grains.

a. The solutions and washings were evaporated to one half, and precipitated by a solution of subcarb. of potass. precipitate, well washed and dried, weighed 62 grains.

EXPERIMENT, No. 4.

Sand Stone upon Scopò, at the Surface. Zante.

External properties. So friable as to break in the fingers.

A. 200 grains were dissolved in half an ounce of muriatic acid, diluted with twice its weight of water; effervescence weak; after the effervescence had ceased, loss of weight 18 grains. Contains probably 40 grains of carbonate of lime.

B. The insoluble part washed, dried, and weighed, amounted to 168 grains. The surplus originating in want of sufficient washing or drying, or some other error in conducting the experiment.

EXPERIMENT, No. 5.

A Specimen of the rock at Skinari, from which the bituminous grease is washed; sent me by Sir Patrick Ross.

Specific gravity 2,319$\frac{33}{43}$. External properties; colour; ground, lime white; fracture even, approaching conchoidal, stained with the impressions of a very fine sea weed; semihard, brittle, rather easily frangible.

A. 5 drachms, 300 grains, exposed to a heat less than red for one hour, lost 3 grains.

B. 200 grains exposed to the action of 1$\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of muriatic acid diluted with 1 ounce of water, effervesced violently, and after an hour and a half was found to have lost 97 grains.

The extreme heat of the weather, (the thermometer being at eighty-six upon the 19th of August, 1820,) rendering it probable that part of the loss of weight arose from evaporation, the same mixture was exposed the following day at the same hour, and for the same length of time, after the effervescence had completely ceased, and under every other circumstance similarly to the experiment of the day before: 10 grains were lost by evaporation solely.

Probable loss by the expulsion of the carbonic acid, 87 grains—giving $193\frac{1}{3}$ grains of carbonate of lime.

C. The insoluble part floated in the mixture in shreds; washed and dried, weighed 6 grains.

Carbonat of lime	$193\frac{1}{3}$
Insoluble . . .	6
	$199\frac{1}{3}$
Loss	$\frac{2}{3}$
	200.

SANTA MAURA.

Experiment, No. 6.

Rock of which El Vouno Mountain, and Diamigliano, being apparently the same, are composed.

Is of a rough scabrous appearance and grayish blue colour. Specific gravity, 2.012.

A. 300 grains were dissolved in 15 drachms of diluted muriatic acid—lost 67 grains, contains $148\frac{2}{5}$ of carbonate of lime.

B. 158 grains were collected afterwards, insoluble. The surplus probably originating in the matter not having been sufficiently washed, or dried, or some other small error in the manipulation. Probable amount of the insoluble part, $151\frac{1}{5}$.

C. Of B was dissolved by dilute vitr. acid, 1 grain, leaving 150—probably, silex.

EXPERIMENT, No. 7.

Calcareous Spar. Catechorihill.

Colour, very light transparent ochre: form, a regular oblique angular tetrahedral prism, the terminal planes set obliquely upon the lateral planes. The thin plates almost as transparent as glass of the same colour.

A. 300 grains finely powdered were exposed in a crucible to a heat less than red, for one hour, lost 1½ grain.

B. To 200 grains of A, 1½ ounce of dilute muriatic acid were added. Mixture effervesced strongly, and in one hour and a half lost 50 grains, equal to 111⅑ of carbonate of lime.

C. The insoluble, part washed and dried in a crucible, amounted to 50 grains.

D. The remaining soluble part of B was, probably, alumine.

EXPERIMENT, No. 8.

Pumice, the mineral found upon the borders of the Lake at Santa Maura.

Specific gravity, much less than water, always floats upon it.

Colour, ash gray, with a few weakly shining spangles interspersed: between spongiform and fibrous: fine earthy fracture.

A. To 150 grains were added 1½ oz. dilute muriatic acid. No effervescence.

B. The acid was allowed to remain over it for many hours, was then decanted and the insoluble

part well washed with repeated affusions and dried. Weight 139 grains.

C. The insoluble part B was covered with strong sulphuric acid for an hour in a tumbler. Water was afterwards added, and it was allowed to rest for three days, the liquid was decanted, the insoluble part well washed and dried, weighed 133 grains. Contains, most probably 133 grains at the least of silex in the 150.

Experiment, No. 9.

Of the beautiful rock, of which Sappho's Leap and the white cliffs near it are composed.

A piece was broken off the precipice, where victims were immolated to Apollo, and where tradition says Sappho precipitated herself into the sea.

External properties: of a clear sugar whiteness, with a few glimmering points in the internal fracture, resembling that of fine loaf sugar, sp. gravity, 2.263.

A. 320 grains finely powdered and exposed to a heat under red in a crucible for one hour lost 8 grs.

B. To 300 grains, one ounce and a half of muriatic acid diluted with an equal weight of water was added; a violent effervescence took place, and the whole was dissolved, excepting 4 grains which remained insoluble.

This specimen is much harder, and yields with more difficulty to the hammer, than the specimen in Experiment, No. 5. It is also in a very slight degree translucent on the edges; in other respects it resembles the rock of Skinari Head.

DATE. — 1818.	Height of Thermometer at Noon.			WINDS.		Height of Barometer at Corfu.	WEATHER, AND GENERAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.		
	Corfu.	Zante.	Cephalonia.	Zante.	Cephalonia.		CORFU.	SANTA MAURA.	CEPHALONIA.
June 21	77	78	79	E.	NW.	29 9/10	Clear.	A smart earthquake at ten min. past eleven P.M.	Dry and calm.
July 8	78	77	86	W.	NW.	29 7/10	Slight shower at noon.	Rather cloudy.	A strong earthquake at a quarter before seven A.M.
10	78	79	86	W.	NW.	29 8/10	Rain.	Heavy rain at night with vivid lightning and thunder.	Weather serene.
August 1	80	83	89	SW.	SE.	29 8/10	Clear.	A little rain.	A little rain.
2	82	83	90	S.	SE.	29 8/10	Clear.	Some rain.	Dull, but no rain.
9	82	82½	85	W.	NW.	30	Clear.	Slight earthquake at twenty min. past seven P.M.	
16	86	86½	87	W.	NW.	29 10/10	Clear.	Weather fine.	
23	81	82	86	W.	NW.	29 7/10	Heavy rain at night and the same the next morning.	Heavy fall of rain at night.	Clear.
27	76	78	82	NW.	NW.	30	Clear.	Fine.	Heavy shock of earthquake at three-quarters past four. A.M.
September 7	76	79	83	W.	SE.	30	Heavy rain.	Fine.	Rain.
8	75	79	83½	SW.	S.	29 9/10	Ditto.	Much rain day and night with lightning and thunder.	Wet, thunder and lightning.
15	71	70	70	NE.	SE.	29 7/10	Rain in the morning, much wind.	High wind.	Wet and stormy, with lightning and thunder, a strong earthquake at night.
Oct. 8, 9, 10	73	79	82	E.	SE.	30	Clear.		
24	65	68	71	W.	NW.	30	Ditto.	Snow upon the Pindus chain.	Clear.

DATE. 1818.	Height of Thermometer at Noon. Corfu.	Zante.	Cephalonia.	WINDS. Zante.	Cephalonia.	Height of Barometer at Corfu.	WEATHER, AND GENERAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS. CORFU.	SANTA MAURA.	CEPHALONIA.
October 25	66	64	71	NE.	S.	$30\frac{1}{10}$	Clear.		Clear.
November 3	65	67	70	W.	NW.	$30\frac{4}{10}$	Clear.	Slight earthquake at about twenty min. before 4, P.M.	Clear.
15	60	$63\frac{1}{2}$	60	E.	S.	$30\frac{3}{10}$	Rain in the night.	Fine, but cloudy.	Str^{g} earthq. hf-past 5, P.M.
Decemb. 18	56	60	67	SW.	SE.	$29\frac{18}{20}$	Heavy rain, th. & lt.		Smart shock of earthq. at 6, A.M.
22	56	58	55	N. E.	SE.	$30\frac{2}{10}$	Clear.		Snow upon the Cephalonia Mountains.
1819.									
Jan. 1, 2, 3	47	45	44	N.&E.	N&E.	$30\frac{2}{10}$	Clear.	Weather dry.	Ditto.
11	51	51	61	N.W.	NE.	$30\frac{3}{10}$	Clear.	Smart earthquake at ten min. before 8, A.M.	Clear.
28	$50\frac{1}{2}$	51	56	NW.	SE.	30	Cloudy.		Smart earthquake at a quarter before five.
May 8	72	70	73	N.W.		$29\frac{18}{20}$	Cloudy.	Fine, high winds.	Smart shock of earthquake at 2, P.M.
9	71	70	74	E.		$29\frac{18}{20}$	Cloudy.	Fine.	Shock of earthq. at 3, A.M.
12	$64\frac{1}{2}$	66		S.		$29\frac{16}{20}$	Shock of earthquake at 5 min. past 5, A.M.	Cloudy, wind & rain.	
19	69	69		S.				Slight Shock of earthq. at ten min. before 1, P. M.	

DATE. — 1819.	Height of Thermometer at Noon.			WINDS.		Height of Barometer at Corfu.	WEATHER, AND GENERAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.		
	Corfu.	Zante.	Cephalonia.	Zante.	Cephalonia.		CORFU.	SANTA-MAURA.	CEPHALONIA.
June ... 16	76		79		NE.	29 18/20	Slight shower, forenoon.		Clear.
19, 20, 21, 23	74		78m		W.	29 16/20	Heavy Rain.		Cloudy and showery with a little thunder.
July ... 10	86	85	94	NW.	SW.	29 19/20	Clear.	Evening rather cloudy, wind high.	A S.E. wind came on at sun-set and occasioned great heat and closeness. Clouds in the southern horison, with much lightning.
14	82	87	86	E.	SE.	29 16/20	Strong wind, heavy rain, thunder and lightning at night.	Fine.	Clear.
16	77	83	83	E.	W.	29 18/20	Clear.	A smart shock of earthquake at twenty-five min. past eleven A.M.	Clear.
18	79	80	82	NW.	W.	29 18/20		Wind high.	A few slight showers in the afternoon.
21, 22, 23	78m	82m	82m	S.	NW.	29 18/20	Rain, heavy night of 23d.		Serene.
August 20	78	82	78	NW.	NW.	29 16/20	A little rain.	Slight rain towards morning.	Cloudy, and one slight shower in the morning.
22	80	80	78	NW.	NW.	29 18/20	Ditto.	Fine.	Clear.
25	80	81	81	NW.	W.	30	Clear.	Slight earthquake at a quarter past five P.M.	Clear.
26	79	82	81	SE.	SE.	30	A little rain.		Clear.
27		84	80	E.	SW.	29 16/20	Rain, and much thunder and lightning; much rain the remainder of the month.		Clear.
30	78	83 1/2	80	SE.	SW.	29 16/20	Heavy rain.	Slight rain and cloudy.	Clear.
31	77	82	80	NW.	SW.	29 16/20	Ditto.	Fine.	Rainy during the night.

DATE. — 1810.	Height of Thermometer at Noon.			WINDS.		Height of Barometer at Corfu.	WEATHER, AND GENERAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.		
	Corfu.	Zante.	Cephalonia.	Zante.	Cephalonia.		CORFU.	SANTA MAURA.	CEPHALONIA.
September 1	79	83	80	E.	S.W.	29 17/20		Cloudy and sultry, frequent slight showers by day.	Clear.
7	77	80	78	S.E.	N.W.	29 17/20	Rain, 7th and 9th.	Cloudy and sultry.	Rain, day and night, and to the 11th inclusively.
10	72	80	74	S.E.	S.E.	29 18/20	Heavy rain.	Slight showers of rain.	Showery in the day; much thunder, lightning, and rain, in the night.
11	72 1/2	73	74	E.	S.E.	29 18/20		Heavy rain, day; and vivid lightning, night.	Showery in the morning; cloudy during the day.
15	76	78	76	E.	S.W.	30 2/20		Cloudy, some rain.	Windy, clouds, and thunder, afternoon; a sharp earthquake at a quarter past nine P.M.
16	76	79	66	E.	S.	30	Clear, rain in the night.	Fine.	Clear.
29	76	77	75	N.W.	S.W.	30	Clear.	Smart earthquake at half-past five A.M.	Clear.
October 16		65	65	S.E.	S.	30	Clear.	Slight earthq. at six A.M., and 2d shock, more severe, at a quarter past eight A.M.	Clear.
17	65	64	68	N.W.	S.	30	Rain, thunder, and lightning.	Fine in the day, rain at night.	Smart earthquake thirteen minutes past three P.M.
November 4	71	74	71	S	E.	30 2/20	Clear.	Fine.	Clear.
5	71	72	70	W.	S.	30 2/20	Clear.	Rather Cloudy.	Clear.
17	67	72	72	S.	S.E.	30 1/20	Cloudy.	Fine.	Clear.
December 1	57	60	60	N.W.	N.E.	29 17/20	Cloudy.	Fine; high winds.	Clear; a smart earthquake at a quarter past three, morning.
13	57	60	60	S.E.	E.	30 1/20	Heavy rain and thunder the night before (12th).	Cloudy; slight rain, evening.	Smart shock of earthquake at half-past three A.M.
19	51	59	56	N.W.	N.	29 19/20		Fine.	A slight shock of earthquake at half-past one P.M.

DATE. — 1819.	Height of Thermometer at Noon. Corfu.	Zante.	Cephalonia.	WINDS. Zante.	Cephalonia.	Height of Barometer at Corfu.	WEATHER, AND GENERAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS. CORFU.	ZANTE.	CEPHALONIA.
Decemb. 27	60	60	63	S.	W.	29 15/20	Heavy rain, with thunder and lightning.	Smart earthquake at half-past four A.M.	Cloudy in the morning, clear evening.
1820, Jan. 21	56	60	60	SE.		29 19/20	Clear.	Fine.	Earthquake at a quarter past ten, night.
Feb. 2, 3, 4,	55m	56m	55½m	E.	SE.&N.	29 17/20 m	Clear.	Several days of rain and hail up to the end of March.	Showery and stormy.
17	52	58	55	SE.	SE.	30 1/20	Heavy rain, morning.	Rain and hail.	A remarkable hail storm at half-past one P.M., one of the largest hailstones weighed 70 grains, it was radiated from the center, and formed of concentric laminæ.
19, 20, 22	53	53	57m	NW.	NW. W.	30 2/20			
23	53	57	54	E.	W.	30 2/20	Clear.	Fine.	Earthquake at ten o'clock at night.
March 2	57½	57	61	S.	W.	29 6/20	Cloudy, rain.	Slight rain, evening.	Slight earthquake at ten at night.
4	56½	56	57	NW.	SW.&W.	29 2/20	Cloudy; south wind, rain and hail.	Freq. showers of rain.	Stormy, rain and hail, thunder and lightning, a strong earthquake at about 4 A.M., a 2d slighter shock at a quarter past 6 A.M. heavy fall of snow on the mountains at night.
5	52½	53	52	NW.	SE.&W.	29 7/20	Hail and rain alternately.	Cloudy.	Stormy, rain, and hail: lightning and thunder,
6	52	54	55	SE.	W.	29 12/20	Rain, nearly all day.	Rain at night.	Stormy showers of rain and hail.
12	52	53	56½	SE.	SE.	29 17/20	Rain, nearly all day.		Cloudy and showery: slight earthq. at 15 min. past 8 P.M.
13	53	53	59	NE.	E.	29 17/20	Continued rain.	Rain, in the evening.	Stormy and showery; rain by day; strong earthq. at 20 m. before 1 P.M.
17	53	52	51	NE.	E.	29 16/20	Cloudy.	Rain, thunder, and lightning.	Stormy, and much rain day and night; heavy fall of snow upon the mountains.
18	53	52	49	E.	E.	29 14/20	Cloudy. * Month of March rainy, nearly throughout.	Wind high.	Fall of snow again upon the mountains. *March throughout was stormy, much rain, hail, and snow, upon the mountains.

DATE. — 1820.		Height of Thermometer at Noon.			WINDS.		Height of Barometer at Corfu.	WEATHER, AND GENERAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.		
		Corfu.	Zante.	Cephalonia.	Zante.	Cephalonia.		CORFU.	ZANTE.	CEPHALONIA.
April	6	59	60	60	SE.	SE.	29 18/20		Fine.	Smart earthq. at 9 A.M.; a 2d slighter shock at 20 min. before 5 P.M.
	7	58	61	61	NW.	SE.	29 18/20	Cloudy, strong wind.	Sultry and cloudy.	Slight earthq. at 4 in the morning.
										* The succeeding months of May, June, July, and August, were almost uniformly serene; the few days of rain shall be noted. This summer was excessively hot.
May	1	63	61	63	S.	W.	29 14/20	Clear.	Fine.	Cloudy, slight shower of rain, with thunder; slight earthq. at half-past 3 P.M.
	7	63	64	64	N.W.	S.	29 17/20	Clear, windy.	Slight rain.	Cloudy, slight showers of rain.
	19	73	73	74	SE.	S.	30 3/20	Clear.	Fine.	Smart earthq at half-past 2 morning.
June	10	74	77	76	S.	SW.	29 14/20	Heavy rain.	Freq. showers rain.	Cloudy, a shower of rain, during which the thermometer fell three degrees.
	18	76	84	81	N.W.	N.	29 11/20	Rain in the morning.	Fine, high winds.	Showers of rain in the morning, and day windy; a good deal of rain in the night, lowering the thermometer 6° by next morning (viz. 19th.)
	21		86	71	NW.	NW.	30	Clear.	Fine.	
	22	74	82	81	W.	W.	29 18/20	Rain in the night.	Fine.	
	23		79	79	N.W.	NW.	29 18/20	Clear.	Fine.	A heavy shower of rain at half-p. 2 A.M.; slight showers in the evening.
	28	74	79	81	NW.	NW.	29 18/20	Clear.	Fine.	Slight earthq. at about 5 m. before 2 P.M.

DATE. — 1820.	Height of Thermometer at Noon.			WINDS.		Height of Barometer at Corfu.	WEATHER, AND GENERAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.		
	Corfu.	Zante.	Cephalonia.	Zante.	Cephalonia.		CORFU.	ZANTE.	CEPHALONIA.
June 29	77	81	84	NW.	SW.	29 10/20	Clear.	Fine.	Sharp earthq. at 25 m. past 6 P.M.; 2nd slight shock at 20 m. before 7 P.M.; third sharp shock at 20 m. past 7 P.M.
July 3	79	84	87	NW.	SW.	29 17/20	Clear.	Fine.	Slight earthq. at 3 P.M.
7	81½	87	85	S.	SW.	29 18/20	Clear.		
11	77	80	79	NW.	W.	29 18/20	Clear.	Wind high.	Slight shower of rain in the morning.
13	77	82	85	NW.	W.	29 19/20	Clear.		Slight earthq. at a little before 2 A.M.
16	80	83	83	NW.	W.	29 19/20	Clear, windy.	A smart shock of earthquake at 10 min. before 9 P.M.	Slight earthq. a little before 2 A.M.
21	83	88	88½	SW.	SW.	29 18/20	Hot wind, evening.		Thermometer maximum 92° on the 21st and 22d at 3 P.M.
22	87	89	88½	S.	W.	29 17/20	Therm. max. 90° at 3 o'cl. P.M.		
23		89	85½	S.	W.	29 17/20			
25	82	88	84	NW.	NW.	29 16/20	Windy, with a shower of rain.		Cloudy towards evening.
26	81	83	83	NW.	NW.	29 15/20	Clear, brisk wind.		Slight earthquake at half-past 5 A.M.
August 4	82½	84	82	S.	NW.	29 19/20		A little rain.	
14	83	85	83	E.	W.	29 18/20	A shower of rain in the night.		
17	84	85	87	NW.	SW.	29 18/20			

DATE. 1820.	Height of Thermometer at Noon. Corfu.	Zante.	Cephalonia.	WINDS. Zante.	Cephalonia.	Height of Barometer at Corfu.	WEATHER, AND GENERAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS. CORFU.	ZANTE.	CEPHALONIA.
August 19	83	85	82 D/2	S.E.	S.	29 17/20	Thunder and lightning, night.		A good deal of rain, accompanied with thunder.
20	76	84	82	E.	S.	29 17/20	Cloudy, very heavy rain, and vivid lightning.		Cloudy and thunder, no rain.
25	86	87	95 3 P.M.	W.	S.W.	29 19/20	Clear.		
September 1	91 3 P.M.	88	90	N.W.	S.W.	29 18/20			
2	91	88	89	N.W.	W.	29 19/20			
3	90	88	88	N.W.	S.W.	29 19/20			
4	89 1/2	89	88	N.W.	N.W.	29 18/20			
5	88	89	87	W.	W.	29 18/20			
6	86 1/2		83		W.	29 17/20			
7	82		84		S.E.	29 15/20	Cloudy, windy, a shower of rain.		Annular eclipse began about 20 minutes before 3 P.M. as nearly as could be observed, a dense cloud having almost obscured the phenomenon at the commencement. From this period the weather was completely broken up, and the thermometer fell down to 70 degrees.
10	79	79		S.E.		29 19/20	Thunder and lightning, heavy rain at night.		
11	73	77		S		30	Heavy rain, thunder, and lightning.	Cloudy and sultry.	

DATE. — 1820.	Height of Thermometer at Noon.			WINDS.		Height of Barometer at Corfu.	WEATHER, AND GENERAL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.		
	Corfu.	Zante.	Cephalonia.	Zante.	Cephalonia.		CORFU.	ZANTE.	CEPHALONIA.
Septem. 12	75	74	73½	NE.	E.	29 17/20	Wind, thunder, lightning and rain.	Heavy falls of rain with vivid lightning and thunder.	Heavy rain most part of day and night, with a good deal of thund. & lightn.
13	72	76	73	NW.	SE.	29 13/20	Heavy rain.		Showery slightly all day.
21	72	71	73	W.	S.	29 18/20	Rain.	Heavy rain, thunder & light.	Heavy rain, a good deal of thun. & light.
22	72	72	74	SE.	S.	29 16/20	Cloudy, windy, heavy rain.		Smart earthq. at two min. and a half before 10 A.M.; slight shock at 10 min. past 10 A.M.
Oct. 6	71	71	71	W.	S.	30 2/20	Clear.	Cloudy, severe shock of earthquake at one, A. M.	Clear.
18	68	70	70	S.	SE.	29 16/20	Wind & rain.	Some rain.	Shock of earthq. at 25 m. before 10 A.M.
24	70	68	75 P.M.	SE.	E.	29 18/20	Cloudy, very windy.	Cloudy.	Slight earthq. at 20 m. before 3 P.M.
27	70	63	72	E.	NW.	29 14/20	Clear.	Fine.	Dull in the morning; sharp earthq. at 5 minutes before 2 P.M.
November 6	60	60	60	NE.	SW.	30	Very fine weather.		Sharp earthq. at 10 m. before 8 A.M.
22	57	57	59	NW.	E.	29 16/20	Clear.	Cloudy.	Earthq. at 1 and 5 P.M.; slight shock.
23	57	57	59	NW.	W.	29 17/20	Clear.	Fine.	Earthquake at 1 P.M.
Decemb. 2	54		50		W.	29 16/20	Clear.		Clear.
23	46½					29 13/20	Clear.		

N. B. In order that these Tables should comprise as much as possible in a small space, the intervening days between the dates are omitted, where little or no variation was marked by the Thermometer from the last date; other atmospherical changes, however, occurring, required the correspondent date to be also included in the Tables.

m Denotes the mean height of the thermometer, where a difference occurred in several days noted together.

D.

From Rees's *Cyclopædia*, (Article, Earthquake,) the following extracts are made, shewing the great extent of the earthquake of 1755 :—

" The great earthquake at Lisbon, in which 60,000 persons are said to have perished, happened the 1st of November 1755, at thirty-five minutes past eight, A. M. a second great shock happened about noon—At Oporto the earthquake was felt at about forty minutes past nine—At Cadiz some minutes after nine, and at ten minutes past eleven the great wave was seen at eight miles' distance, being sixty feet higher than usual : it came in upon the city walls, beat in the breast-work and carried pieces of the building of eight or ten tons weight, to the distance of forty or fifty yards. At half past eleven was a second wave. At ten minutes before twelve, similar waves but smaller, and gradually lessening, continued with uncertain intervals till evening."

" At Gibraltar the earthquake was not felt till after ten—At Madrid at the same time. In Africa, the earthquake was almost as severely felt as in Europe; great part of the town of Algiers was destroyed."

" At Arzilla in the kingdom of Fez, a great wave was observed at about ten in the morning—At Tangier it began at ten in the morning—At Tetuan at ten—At Funchal, island of Madeira, at thirty-eight minutes past nine in the morning."

" In the British islands—At Barborough in Derbyshire, at between eleven and twelve in the morning, was a great swell of the lake Pibley Dam, attended with a loud noise—At about half past ten in the morning at Busbridge in Surrey—Near Durham, at half past ten—At Earfy Court, Berks, at about eleven o'clock—At Sherborne Castle, Oxfordshire, at a little after ten, morning—At Whiterock, Glamorganshire, at three quarters after six, evening—At Loch Lomond in Scotland, at about half past nine, morning—At Loch Ness, at half past nine morning—At Kinsale, Ireland, at between two and three in the afternoon, and again between six and seven, evening."

" A ship at sea in north latitude, twenty-five degrees west longitude, felt the shock violently."

To imagine a cause commensurate with such an effect, supposing the agent to be expansion, one of two improbable explanations must be had recourse to; either that nearly the whole of Europe, and part of Africa, or a much larger space, is undermined by a great subterraneous vault, in which case it is probable that great depressions of land and annihilations of whole countries would occasionally happen; or, if the cavity be supposed to be smaller, it must be imagined to exist near the centre of the earth, in order by re-action to produce an adequate effect; and that force moreover should be applied to one continuous sub-stratum, that forms a basis to nearly the whole of the space acted upon. What-

ever theory be adopted, it would appear that the last mentioned datum must be supposed.

The arguments brought forward to disprove the opinion, that electricity is the cause of earthquakes, appear to be as hypothetical as those upon which that theory is founded. Thus it is taken for granted that no accumulation of electrical matter can take place, (that we can conceive,) in either the earth or the atmosphere, sufficient to the effect; because, in the former case it would be dispersed by the attraction of surrounding bodies; and in the latter, because, (as far as we can know,) the quantity accumulated in the clouds or atmosphere cannot exceed what is sufficient to constitute a thunder storm.

Another objection urged against the theory of electricity is the quick repetition of the shocks, and their irregularity; because, it is difficult to comprehend how the electric fluid could be let out of its confinement, in a manner so irregular. It is equally difficult to conceive why repeated expansions of gas should happen in the same place. In fact, if electricity be not admitted as the cause of earthquake, the phenomenon remains as yet to be explained: the shocks experienced by ships at sea, in deep water, seem to admit of no other.

E.

FINANCE.

No. 1.

The progressive improvement in the finances of the islands will appear from the following accounts and observations, extracted from the *Corfù Gazettes*, and published under the authority of government.

ACCOUNTS FOR THE YEAR, 1819,

(From the Ionian Gazettes, 7th March and 6th May, 1820.)

Balance in the Treasury, 1st Feb. 1819,		404,574 dollars.
Amount of Revenue for the financial year, ending 31st Jan. 1820,	460,566	
Expenditure of the financial year, ending 31st January, 1820 . . .	430,374	
Surplus of Revenue above Expenditure for the year 1820 . . .	30,192	
Outstanding Credits of Government, paid in same year . : .	25,864	
	56,056	
Balance in the Treasury 1st Feb. 1820 .		460,630 dollars.

—The Expenditure of this year was less than that of the preceding by 34,000 dollars.

—The Revenue of this year exceeded that of the year 1818, by 50,163 dollars, although it was one of the sterile years in the production of olives.

—The public functionaries are now well paid, although many of them served gratuitously before.

—There never was an effective sum in the treasury in the old government, nor an advance in the revenue: the deficiencies were supplied by capitation taxes, and by forced contributions. The only additional tax levied, was upon the exportation of oil in 1817; eleven vexatious taxes were, however, repealed for this. With respect to the tax upon the exportation of oil, the price was so much more increased in proportion, that the exporter benefited instead of suffering by it.

—A reduction of 20 per cent. in the price of bread, was the effect of the bill, by which the supply of corn was taken into the hands of government for two years. The monopoly of individuals was severely felt before; the supply is now more secure, although the government is averse to any thing like a system of monopoly, the effect of which is to shackle commerce.

Sir Thomas Maitland further says, in his speech at the opening of parliament:—

—The Militia were said, by the designing *(mal intenzionati)*, to be enrolled for the purpose of conveying them to serve in some of the distant possessions of England.

—The Santa Mauriots twice solicited the government to erect the mole and canal, and voluntarily to submit to local taxation for that purpose *. The re-

* The Author was upon the spot during the time the petitions to government were in agitation, and actually presented.

bellion broke out without any remonstrance on the part of those people against the taxation, or any other supposed grievance.

—By the convention of the 21st of March, 1800, Parga was ceded to the Sublime Porte, and in the treaty which placed the islands under the protection of England, Parga was excluded. The Parginots were subsequently naturalized by the legislature.

ACCOUNTS FOR THE YEAR 1820,

(From Sir THOMAS MAITLAND'S Speech to the Legislative Assembly, 6th March, 1821.)

Balance in the Treasury, 1st Feb. 1820,		460,630 dollars.
Surplus of Revenue above Expenditure, for the year ending 31st January, 1821	61,256	
Outstanding Credits of Government since 1819, paid in . . .	13,594	
	74,850	
Balance in the Treasury, 1st Feb. 1821 .		535,480 dollars.

Notwithstanding the unfavourable appearance of the crops last March, and the addition of 100,000 dollars to the expenditure, for the palace and other public works.

No. 2.

Corfù, 23d March, 1821.

The British force at present in these islands are, four intire regiments, and a large detachment of

about two-thirds of a regiment, which, with artillery, staff, &c. may be stated at 3,300 effective, and the expense estimated as follows:

	£.
4⅔ Regiments, at 17,500*l.* ster. per ann.	81,666
Ordnance for all branches	7,500
Royal Staff Corps	1,000
Staff, Military and Medical	8,500
Commissariat of Stores	3,000
Commissariat of Accounts	480
Paymaster General's department	550
Forage for Horses	1,650
Contingencies	654
	£. 105,000

The comparative state of prosperity and security of these islanders under the British government is best shewn in their own words; viz. from the speech of Signior Manzaro, the Fiscal Advocate-General, addressed to the Legislative Assembly on the 10th of March, 1821: of which the following Extract is taken from the Gazette Extraordinary, dated Corfù, 14th March, 1821.

" Qual pace non godiamo noi ed imperturbalità, sebbene situati in mezzo a due limitrofi paesi, Napoli, e l'Epiro, ove tuttora ardono faci di guerra e sconvoglimenti politici! Quel timore, che una sola caravella Ottomana all' approssimarsi di questi mari destava ed in noi, e nei nostri governanti, quello stesso arresta ora un' intera flotta Ottomana schierata in faccia di noi sulle spiaggie del suo Continente;

solo perchè si ricorda, che prossime a se esistono terre protette dalle armi Britanniche,

Il commercio della nostra sussistenza non è interrotto coll' Epiro, e del soccorso del Regno di Napoli non abbisogniamo, se già la sussistenza è assicurata, e la carestia è evitata con una provigione di grani bastevole fino al venturo Novembre, effettuata senza una tassa, un prestito, un' incomodo di verun capitalista, senza lasciare all' ordinaria ingordigia di alcuni speculatori la poca coscienza di lucrare sul pane del popolo. La nostra Cassa ha fornito un capitale, la moderazione del prezzo è assicurata, il lucro discrettamente ricavato, refluì a benefizio di tutti se è lealmente versato nella somma di 75,000 Tal, nello stesso Pubblico Tesoro. Ove sono gli omicidj che coi giorni contavansi in Zante, e nella bella pertinenza di Leftimo in Corfù? Essi disparvero colle lucrative permissioni ree, che accordava il Governo di portar armi, e coll' influenza dei fomentatori de' partiti. Ove sono i gemiti coi quali queste Popolazioni si lasciavano estorcere in ogni Reggimento e Generalato delle somme immense di denaro a profitto di un corrotto ministero, e di più corrotti reggitori? Ove è il negozio del prostichio che faceva impudentemente quel Rappresentante del Governo che parea quì venisse per eseguire la legge che lo divietava? Chi può oggi con un migliajo di uvapassa, o con un viglietto di oglio comprare il capriccio, o soddisfar l'odio, che ad una famiglia tolga il suo Capo, o ad un Padre i suoi figlivoli? Ov' è quel sistema che male pagando i Pubblici

Funzionarj gli esponeva a satollarsi colle dovizie dell' errario, o col sangue dei poveri, o col Patrimonio delle Chiese? Ov' è l' abuso, passato quasi in abitudine, che faceva prezzolata otténer la Giustizia, e per cui celebre rimase negli annali dell' esecrazione il nome di un Consigliere Pisani? Ov' è quel sistema di Finanza avvolto nell' enigma di cifre inintelligibili, che fece dall' abbiezione sorgere talvolta la ricchezza, lasciando inabissato il Pubblico errario? La nostra Cassa gode, e il nostro Governo insieme, di un privileggio certamente esclusivo in confronto forse di tutti i Governi, che è quello, di non aver' un soldo di debito. Gli edifizj Pubblici sono riparati, altri s' inalzano luminosi, e magnifici; Canali sono scavati, Molli costruiti, i Ponti riedificati, i Sacri Templi ristaurati, una mano soccorrevole è sempre pronta a sostener gli indigenti, i Pubblici Funzionarj meritevolmente rimunerati, e nell' errario rimane una somma di 536,000 Talleri, e tanti che ogni anno si accrescono con un crescente civanzo, come prodigiosamente vedemmo in quest' anno malgrado la mancanza dell' Oglio, la dimezzazione della rendita dell' Uvapassa, la tenue raccolta del Grano, e del Vino, Nessuno ci domanda un prestito in nome del Governo, come in passato, non restituibile più, perchè assorbito da quel vortice che ingojava tutto il pubblico tesoro. Chi ci manda in casa un grano acquistato a carissimo prezzo, dopò ch' è corrotto, per obbligarci a tenerlo, e pagarlo per requisizione, sebbene alimento di morte, anzi che nodrimento vitale? Quale

delle nostre case è presa per requisizione senza esigere affitti, o quale delle nostre famiglie è obbligata ad accogliere per requisizione nomini pubblici? Una guarnigione ci protegge, di cui il carattere, l' onore, la lealtà, la morigeratezza, la moderazione, formano la corona di tutte le virtù sociali."

F

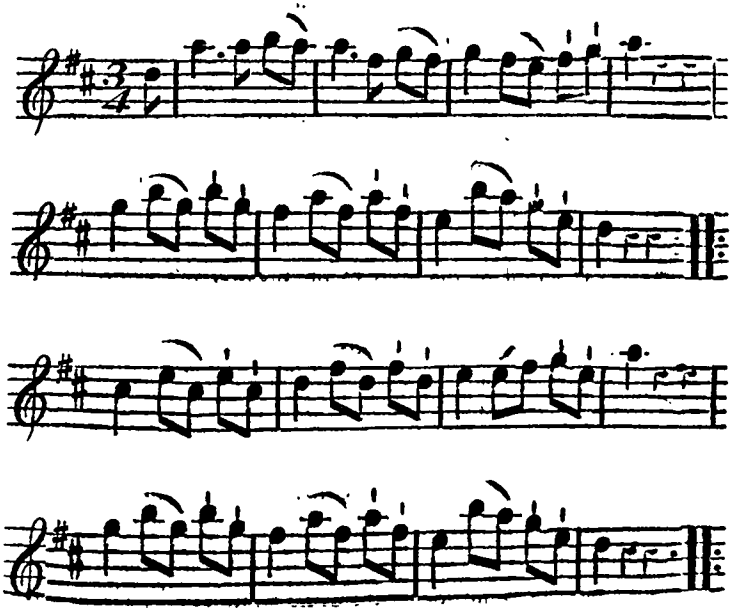
MODERN GREEK AIR.

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

PLATE II. In the heart of the olive-tree is seen a large stone of several hundred pounds' weight, which it has raised from the wall in its growth; a twig of the olive, when young, having gradually insinuated itself into the joints, where it ultimately took root; shewing the prodigious force of vegetation, and exhibiting one of the causes of the destruction of old buildings. The tree is probably three hundred years' old.

III. The chord of the arch of the theatre, viz. along the orchestra, measures forty-two paces; the depth of the stage and proscenium together is twenty paces; (each pace being equal to about thirty inches;) the depth of the postscenium is eleven feet and a half.

VI. AB. three feet. CD. six feet three inches. EF. two feet six inches. Immediately behind EF are the grooves for the portcullis, or stone gate, cut in the solid stone at each side, eighteen inches in width; a parallel stone passage runs in from this, of the same width as EF, viz. two feet and a half.

VII. The third stone from the bottom, at the end of the wall next to the olive-tree, measures nine feet nine inches in length, and two feet eight inches in height. The convent seen in the distance is built upon the second acropolis, Cyatis.

VIII. Fig. 1. Sketch of the stone with the inscription at Leucate: the dark part represents the stone as it is, the light supplies the parts that are probably wanted.

Fig. 2. Stone found in the garden, close to the ruin in Ithaca, called " Homer's school."

Fig. 3. Part of a shaft with its capital of tufa belonging to the ancient temple, (probably of Jupiter Enos,) the ruins of which are near Scala in Cephalonia. This fragment is used as an altar in a little chapel adjoining the ruin. The plinth of the capital is an octagon: diameter of the shaft twenty-seven inches.

THE END.

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VI. } together	„	152
VII. }		
VIII. . .	„	162

ERRATA.

PAGE 32 line 24, *for* scite *read* site.
55 line 7, *for* Provesa *read* Prevesa.
57 line 26, *for* olive *read* olives.
59 2d line from the bottom, *for* endemic *read* endemic.
59 last line, in the note, *for* exists *read* exist.
71 in the note, *for* of the chapter *read* of the 4th chapter.
87 line 2, *for* tranquility *read* tranquillity.
93 line 19, *for* Amphilochum *read* Amphilocum.
94 line 19, *for* timber *read* lumber.
97 line 22, *for* previous *read* previously.
106 line 7, *for* largest *read* larger.
136 line 3, *for* defended *read* defined.
157 line 13, *for* and of *read* and are of.
158 line 4, *for* 1815 *read* 1816.
109 last line, *for* " Usurpatori" *read* " Usurpatori."
236 line 33, *for* evaporation, was. *dele* comma, *read* were.

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